my ANEW Boutton

GRAMMAR

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English Language;

O R,

An Easy INTRODUCTION

To the ART of SPEAKING and WRITING ENGLISH with PROPRIETY and CORRECTNESS:

THE WHOLE LAID DOWN IN THE MOST PLAIN AND FAMILIAR MANNER,

AND

CALCULATED FOR THE USE, NOT ONLY OF SCHOOLS, BUT OF PRIVATE GENTLEMEN.

By D. FENNING,

AUTHOR of the Royal English Distionary (published by the King's Authority).—The Schoolmaster's Companion in the Knowledge of Arithmetic.—The Universal Spelling-Book.—The New Spelling-Dictionary.—The British Youth's Instructor, or a N and Easy Guide to Practical Arithmetic.—The Ready Recker, being correct Tables of Accompts ready cast up.—The Young Man's Book of Knowledge.—The Young Measurer's Complete Guide.—The Youth's Familiar Guide to Trade and Commerce.—And the Young Algebraist's Companion.

The SIXTH EDITION, carefully corrected.

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This Day is Published.

The SECOND EDITION, with LARGE ADDITIONS and IMPROVEMENTS, (many thousand Words being inferted in this, which were omitted in the former Impression) of

The NEW and COMPLETE

SPELLING DICTIONARY,

SUREGUIDE TOTHE ENGLISH LANGUAGE;

SHEWING

I. The Use of the ALPHABET in general, with the different Methods of pronouncing fingle, double, and treble Vowels and Confonants, in a variety of Examples.

II. An easy and familiar GRAMMAR, in which the different Parts of Speech are not only pointed out by name, but the Use of them reduced into real Practice.

III. A DICTIONARY, containing near forty Thousand Words, with their Signification, and the Name of the

Part of Speech to which they belong.

The Whole principally defigned for the Use of Schools; but digested in so clear and distinct a Manner, that all fuch adult Persons, or Foreigners, as have not had the Advantage of being taught, may, by their own Application only, become acquainted with the English Tongue in a short Time.

By D. FENNING,

AUTHOR of the ROYAL DICTIONARY, YOUNG MAN'S BOOK OF KNOWLEDGE, USE OF THE GLOBES, UNIVERSAL SPELLING-BOOK, SCHOOL-MASTER'S COM-PANION, &c.

To which are prefixed,

TWO Very Useful TABLES. TABLE I. Contains the Names of the principal Men mentioned

in the Old and New Testament, with their original Meaning,

and the Place where they are found.

TABLE II. Contains the Names of such Places as are more difficult to read and pronounce. These have here both their proper Accent and Rules of Pronunciation, for the Use of such as would read the Sacred Writings with Propriety.

THE

PREFACE.

ONSIDERING the great number of English Grammars that have already been offered to the Public, it will naturally be expected, that I should explain the motives that induced me to trouble the world with another Treatife on the fame subject. When I had the honour of being employed as a School-mafter -- for notwithstanding the sneers of ignorant Coxcombs, if the honour of any profession is to be measured by its utility and its importance to Society, there is no employment more honourable than that of a School-matter——I drew up feveral works for the instruction of youth in the English tongue, and, among others, the substance of the following Grammar. These works I contented myself, for some time, with using in my own school: and I had the satisfaction to observe, that the use of them was attended with equal ease to myself, and advantage to my Scho-Some of them were afterwards communicated to the public, and were so generally and highly approved, that many of the most eminent School-masters in the kingdom strongly importuned me to publish my Grammar. In compliance with their defire, I put the finishing hand to that work, and I here deliver it to the public with all that deference and respect which becomes an individual when addressing himself to so great and august a body.

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In composing this Grammar the reader will perceive, that I have strictly adhered to the old terms and the old divisions; being fully convinced of the justiness of Dr. Johnson's observation, that it is a very trisling, as well as a very dangerous ambition, to attempt to teach arts in a new language. In treating of the Conju-

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gation of Verbs, I thought it most adviseable to prefent the Scholar with an active and a passive verb conjugated, without interruption, through all the moods, tenses, numbers, and persons; a thing which I do not remember to have seen in above one or two

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other English Grammars.

In the article of Syntax, I have endeavoured to be full, without being tedious, because I consider it as the most important part of Grammar, and that in which the generality of writers are most apt to err. I own, indeed, that the conftruction of our language is fomewhat irregular, and not very eafily reducible to rules; and this, I imagine, is the principal reason, why some Grammarians have omitted it entirely. Dr. Johnson has comprised it in ten or twelve lines. Dr. Priefily has dispatched it in less than three pages; though the notes and observations at the end of his Grammar may ferve, in some measure, to supply that defect. But Dr. Lowth, who feems to have undertaken his Grammar chiefly with a view to explain the rules of Syntax, has, partly in his text, but ftill more in his notes, treated the subject in so clear and comprehensive a manner, as to leave little to be done by fucceeding Grammarians. Nevertheless it appears to me that the Grammars of these two last Gentlemen are much fitter for men of letters, than for Youth at School.

To impress the rules of Syntax the more deeply in the reader's memory, I have added to this part tome examples, in which the construction, as well as the etymology, of every word is carefully explained. Where any word occurs oftener than once in the same example, a reference is made to the former explanation: but no reference is made from one example to another; every example being complete within itself, and containing a full and diffinct account of every

word of which it is composed.

For the rules respecting the arrangement of words, I am chiefly indebted to Lord Kaimes's Elements of Criticism; a work which shews the Author to be possessed of equal delicacy of taste, and solidity of judgment.

Rhetoric, I know, is no part of Grammar, properly so called; the latter teaching only plainness and propriety:

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priety; the former paving the way to elegance and dignity. But I imagined that a short account of the principal Tropes and Figures of Rhetoric would be no unpleasing addition to my Grammar, as it would serve to relieve the reader from that languor which is usually occasioned by the dryness of grammatical disquisitions. Such an account I have therefore given from Dodfley's Preceptor, who has copied it from Blackwell's Introduction to the Classics; and to either of these I refer such of my readers as are delirous of being more thoroughly acquainted with the Rules of Rhetoric.

In my quotations under this head, the reader will observe, that I have taken some of them from translations of the Greek and Latin Classics. however, of my former opinion. I think it possible for a person to be a complete Master of the English tongue, without troubling himfelf with any other language whatever. But I look upon a good translation of a Greek or Latin Classic, such as Pope's Homer, or Dryden's Virgil, to be as truly an English book, as Milton's Paradife Lost, or Young's Night Thoughts.

In my quotations in general, I had an eye, not only to their being applicable to the rules they were intended to exemplify, but also to the elegance of Style, and the beauty of fentiment they displayed, and the purity of the moral they inculcated. They may, therefore, be confidered not merely as illustrations of the Rules of Grammar, but likewife as specimens of fine writing, containing the most excellent precepts of morality; and as fuch they are very proper, especially the longer ones in the Article of Rhetoric, to be prescribed as lessons to the more advanced Scholars, to improve them in the art of reading.

There are some things to be found in other Grammars, which are purpolely omitted in this. These are Tables of Words differently accented, and Catalogues of Juch as have similar Jounds, but different significations, together with examples of bad English. The first two of these are to be found in my Spelling-Book; and I never understood, that the use of a Grammar was to superfede the use of a Spelling-Book. As to examples of bad English, I not only think that they make a very aukward appearance, but I am even of opinion, that they

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may have a very bad effect. They are more likely to perplex a young Scholar, and to confirm an old one in error, than to direct the judgment of the one, or correct the bad habit of the other. The only plaufible argument I ever heard urged for the use of these examples is, that they are formed upon the same plan with Clarke's and Turner's Latin Exercises. But this argument, however specious, is founded upon a mistake. The words in Clarke's and Turner's Exercises, though put out of the order of construction, are still Latin Weres; whereas the words in some of the examples of bad English, which I have seen, are neither English, Irish, Welch, nor Scotch words, nor words of any other language.

Bad English is said to consist either in salse spelling, or in salse construction. The best method to supply the first of these is, for the master, or some of the higher scholars, to dictate occasionally a sentence or two from any book to the lower Scholars, and there is no fear but, in copying down the words, they will be guilty of many instances of salse spelling. And to supply examples of salse construction, they may be accustomed to write letters to the Master, or to one another, when they will frequently err against every sule of Syntax. And I can truly say from my own observation, that a child will attend more carefully to the correction of an error made by himself, than to the

correction of one made by another.

I mean not to prescribe to any Master in what manner to use this Grammar. I only beg leave to mention my own manner of using it; and as that was attended with uncommon fuccess, it may be deemed not unworthy of being adopted by others. As foon as a child was capable of reading tolerably, and of observing the proper stops and pauses, (which two things he always learned from the Spelling-Book) I put him into Etymology, which I made him read over from beginning to end, all but the derivation of words, which I reterved as one of the last parts of Grammar. I then brought him back to the beginning of Etymology, and made him read over the declention of Nouns and Pronouns, and the conjugation of Verbs fo frequently, that at last he, in some measure, committed them to memory. I then every day prescribed him a short les-

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fon in some easy book, and made him endeavour to shew to what part of speech every word belonged. Still he continued to give a second or third reading to the other parts of Etymology, in order to acquire a more perfect

knowledge of the whole.

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When he was able to point out with eafe every part of speech in the lesson prescribed him, I put him into Syntax, which I made him read over, as he had done Ltymology, from beginning to end, excepting the additional remarks, which, like the derivation of words, I confidered as one of the last parts of Grammar. After he had read Syntax twice or thrice over, I made him begin to explain the construction of fentences in the lessons that were set him. I now likewise caused him to read over, with care, the Derivation of Words, and the additional Remarks, in order to give him a more comprehensive view, as well of Etymology as of Syntax. Thus he advanced by quick degrees, till in the space of a year, and fometimes in lefs, according to his capacity, he had made himself Master of the two most essential parts of Grammar, without interrupting any of the other branches of learning.

With regard to *Projedy*, I feldom put any of my Scholars into it, until they were pretty far advanced in their learning. Then, indeed, I made them give it a careful perutal, and at the fame time obliged them to read, every day, a leffon in Poetry. In fact, I have observed, that the reading of Poetry is the most effectual way of learning to read even Prose well. No man can read well without understanding the quantity of Syllables. But the quantity of syllables can be learned, with accuracy, from the poets only. The reading of Poetry, therefore, is the best method to acquire the art of reading with propriety and grace. With respect to Rhetoric, I never prescribed it to my Scholars as a task; I have sometimes given it them by way of amusement.

As this Grammar is intended chiefly for the use of English Schools, I have endeavoured to express myself with as much plainness and simplicity as possible; and, though I hope my Style is sufficiently smooth, I have

always preferred perspicuity to elegance.

ADVERTISEMENT to the FIRST EDITION.

BY THE E DIT OR.

THE following Grammar was put into my hands, in Manuscript, by the Bookseller, with a request that I would examine it carefully, and prepare it for the press, but not make any alteration in it, without an evident necessity. Happily my own judgment concurred with the Bookseller's desire; for, upon perusing the work with the greatest attention, I did not find a single page that I could wish to see altered. If any Gentleman, however, should be of a different opinion, and think that the work is still capable of improvement, it will be considered as a particular favour if he will signify his sentiments in a letter addressed to the publisher, and a proper use shall be made of his hints in the next edition.

THE EDITOR'S PREFACE

TOTHE

SECOND EDITION.

IN consequence of the foregoing Advertisement, I have been favoured with letters from many Gentlemen; fome of them expressing their entire approbation of the work, and declaring it to be, for the use of Schools, the best book of the kind hitherto published; and others, though professing, in the main, the same sentiments as to the merit of the performance, yet fuggesting some hints towards its further improvement. To both these sets of friends, I take this opportunity, as well in my own as in the Publisher's name, to return my most sincere and grateful acknowledgments. That the approbation of the former has not been altogether ill-founded, the fale of a very large impression of the work in a little more than a twelvemonth, is, at once, a pleafing and an irrefragable proof; and that a proper regard has been paid to the hints of the latter, will appear from a perufal of this new edition, which, it is hoped, will be found still more deferving, than the first, of the good opinion and encouragement of the public.

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TOTHE

THIRD EDITION.

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HE Editor has nothing farther to observe with regard to this third edition of the New Grammar of the English Language, than that, by the advice of some of the most eminent School-masters in and about London, and in order to express his gratitude to the Instructors of Youth in general for the very favourable reception they have given to the two former editions, he hath confiderably enlarged the examples in the article of Rhetoric; fo as to render that part of the Work more fit to answer one of the ends, which the Author declares in his preface he had in view in composing it, namely, the making it confift of a number of excellent paffages, that might be prescribed as lessons to the more advanced Scholars, to improve them in the art of reading.

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TOTHE

FIFTH EDITION, By the EDITOR.

HAVING now, by the utmost exertion of my own abilities, and the kind assistance of my friends, among whom I have the pleasure of reckoning many of the most eminent Masters of Academies in and about London, brought this work to the highest degree of perfection, of which, either in their or in my opinion, it is capable, I have nothing further to add, than that if, during the sale of the present impression, I should be furnished with any fresh hints for its still greater improvement, I will not sail to make a proper use of them in the next edition.

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NEW GRAMMAR

OFTHE

ENGLISH LANGUAGE.



INTRODUCTION.

X7 HAT is Grammar?

A. Grammar is the Art of communicating our thoughts by words in the plainest and most intelligible manner.

2. Why is it called an Art?
A. Because it confists of certain rules.

9. What are these rules?

A. The observations of ingenious men upon the works of the best writers.

2. Why is it faid to be the Art of communicating

our thoughts by words?

A. Because there are other methods of communicating our thoughts, fuch as looks, gestures, painting, &c.

2. Into how many parts is Grammar ut ally diwided?

A. Into four.

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2. What are they?

A. Orthography, Etymology, Syntax, and Profody.

2. Do not some Grammarians make a fifth di-

A. Yes, Orthopy, or the art of pronouncing words rightly; but that is always comprehended under Orthography. \mathbf{B} PART

R

C H A P. I.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

2: WHAT is Orthography? A. Orthography, strictly speaking, is the art of writing words rightly; but, as I just now said, it likewife includes the art of pronouncing them properly. Dr. Johnson calls it the art of combining letters into fyllables, and fyllables into words.

2. What are the first Elements of langue go? Letters.

2. What are the conflitment parts of it? A. Syllables, Words, and Sentences.

2. How many letters are there in the English lan-

guage!

A. Twenty-fix, viz. A, a; B, b; C, c; D, d; E, e; F, f; G, g; H, h; I, i; J, j; K, k; L, l; M, m; N, n; O, o; P, p; Q, q; R, r; S, f; T, t; U, u; V, v; W, w; X, x; Y, y; Z, z.

2. How are these letters divided?
A. Into Vowels and Consonants.

Q. What is a Vowel?

A. A letter that can be founded di incelly by itself.

Q. What is a Confonant?

A. A letter that cannot be found at diffinctly by itself, but, in order to be properly neard, must be joined with a voweld

. How many vowels are there f

A. Eix, as a, e, 1, e, u, y. .2. Is y always a vowel?

A. No; at the beginning of words it is a confonant, as yet, yes, young, yellow. In the middle and at the end of words, it is a vowel.

2. How many conforants are there?

A. Twenty, as b, c, d, f, g, b, j, k, l, m, n, b, q, r, s, t, v, w, x, 2.

Q. What have you to observe of these consonants? A. Some of them cannot be founded of themseives at all, and are therefore called mutes, as b, c, d, g, k, f, q, t: others very imperfectly, making a kind of obscure found, and are therefore called femi-vowels, or half-vowels, as 1, m, n, r, f, s; the first four of which are likewise called liquids.



C H A P. II.

Of VOWELS.

HOW many founds has A?

A. Three. 1st. The slender found, as chace, race, brace, nation. 2d. The open found, as father, rather, blast, mast. 3d. The broad found, as all, wall, fall. 2. With what letters does A form a diphthong?

A. With i or y, and u or w. Ai or ay has a long and flender found, as in gain, rain, day, bay. Au and aw have the fame found as a broad, as fault, straw. likewife forms a diphthong with e in fome words derived from the Greek or Latin, as Alop, Ancas.

2. What have you to observe of the letter E? A. It is either long, as in scheme, sphere; or short,

as in den, ben, separate, secure. 2. When is it short?

A. It is always short before a double consonant, or two confonants, as cellar, blefs, bleffing, repent, pealar, lerpent.

Q. When is E filent?

A. It is always filent at the end of words, except in monofyllables that have no other vowels, as be, five, me, we, the; or proper names, as Possphae, Penelope, Melpomene, Kantippe. It fometimes ferves to fotten the foregoing commonant, as bence, fence, pence, glance, dance: or to lengthen the preceding vowel, as dam, dame; man, mane; pin, pine; het, hile; tun, tune; bug, buge; rag, rage. Q. Does

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2. Does it always lengthen the preceding vowel?

A. No, as dove, love, above.

2. Does not E formetimes, at the end of words, almost lose its found?

A. Yes, as widen, straiten, waxen, pestle, nestle, acre,

mitre.

Q. With what vowels does E form a diphthong?

A. With a, as fear, hear; with i, as reign, deign; and with u or w, as eulogy, pewter.

2. How is ea founded?

A. Like e long and open, as dream, cream, bean; or like e long and close, as near, clear, rear; or like e short and close, as head, lead, bread.

2. How is ei founded?

A. Like e long, as feize, conceive. 2. How are eu and ew founded?

2. How are eu and ew founded?
A. Like u long and foft, as Deveronomy, Dew.

Q. What have you farther to-observe of the letter E?

A. E, a, u, are joined in beauty, and its derivatives, but have only the sound of u long. Eo is found in people, and is sounded like ee; and in Yeoman, where it is pronounced like e short, as Yemman.

I

2. How many founds has the vowel 1?

A. Four; it is fometimes long, and fometimes fhort: it is fometimes founded like u, and fometimes like ee.

2. When is I long?

A. In all words that end with e filent, as bride, hide, line, fine. It is likewise long before gh, as nigh; before ght, as light; before gn, as fign; before ld, as child, except build, guild, and their derivatives; before mb, as climb; and nd, as find.

Q. When is I short?

A. In all monofyllables ending with a fingle confonant, as bid, did, lid, fin, grin, or with two confonants of the fame kind, as fill, bill, rill.

2. When is I founded like u?

A. In some words before r, as first, third, skirt,

2. When is I founded like ee?

A. In the words Bombasin, Capuchin, Machine, Magazine, and fome others.

2. With what vowels does I form a diphthong?
A. With the vowel e only, as believe, chief, and is founded like ee; except in friend, where it is founded thort.

Q. How many founds has the vowel O?

A. Four: viz. ift. A long found, as no, fo, lo. 2d. A thort found, as bot, pot, rot. 3d. It is sometimes founded like on, as do, Rome, tomb, womb. And 4th; fometimes like a thort, as come, fon, month. O in women, is pronounced like i, as tuimen.

2. With what vowels does O form a diphthong?

A. With a, as broad, load, moan, groan: with e in some words derived from the Greek, as aconomy, acumemeal: with i, as boil, coil, foil: with o, as boot, root, fort: with u or w, as four, shower, flower. In some words on and our have only the found of o long, as foul, low, row.

Q. How many founds has U?

A. Two; a short one, as tun; and a long one, as

2. When is u fhort?

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A. In all words or fyllables that end with one or more confonants, as club, drub, fun, gun, duft, ruft, butter, clutter.

2. When is u long?

A. In all monofyllables that end with e filent, as cube, tube, truce, brute.

2. With what vowels does u form a diphthong?

A. With a, e, i, o; though, when thus joined, it has rather the found of w; as quart, quell, quilt, quote.

2. Is u ever mute?

A. Yes, fometimes before a, e, i, y, as guard, guess, guilt, buy. Ue is likewise sometimes mute at the end of a word, in imitation of the French, as plague, league, vague.

Q. What is the found of Y?

Ar

A. Y is founded like i long, and supplies the place of i at the end of words, as thy, my, cry; and before i, as dying, slying. It is commonly retained in derivative words, where it was part of a diphthong in the primitive, as play, player; cloy, cloyed; joy, joyful. But if it was no part of a diphthong in the primitive, it is changed into i in the derivative, as cry, cries; fly, flies.

. is Y always a vowel?

A. No; when it begins a word it is a confonant, as y_0 , y_0u , y_0u .

~~************************

C H A P. III.

Of CONSONANTS.

P

2. WHAT is the found of B?

A. B has the fame found every where, both in the beginning, the middle, and the end of words, as block, rubber, rub.

 \mathcal{Q} . Is not B formetimes mute?

A. Yes, in debt, doubt, subtle, lamb, limb, climb, dumb, plumb, &c.

C

2. How is C founded?

A. It is either founded hard like k, or foft like s.

2. When is it founded hard?

A. Before a, o, u, l, and r; as cat, cost, cub, clear, cram.

2. When is it founded foft?

A. Before e, i, and y; as cedar, civil, cypher. It is also fost before an apostrophe, denoting the absence of e, as glanc'd (glanced) lac'd (laced).

Q. How is ch founded?

A. Like the as chace, cherry, chick, church: but in words derived from the Greek or Latin, it is founded like k, as chars, choler, chymist, chart, chord. In words derived from the French, it is founded like sh, as chaise, chevalier,

chevalier, machine. In choir, and chorifter, it is founded like qu.

2. How is arch sounded?

A. Before a vowel it is commonly founded ark, as archangel, except in architect, and a few other words. Before a confonant it is always foft, as Archbishop, Archdeacon.

2. What have you to observe of the letter D?

A. Little, but that its found is always the fame, as dam, defk, did.

2. Is not ed at the end of verbs sometimes contracted

into t?

A. Yes, as stamped, stampt; crossed, crost; dropped, dropt; possessed, possessed.

2. What have you to fay of the letter F?

A. Nothing, but that it has one unvaried found, and that of is fornetimes pronounced like ov, as a bufbel of (sv) apples.

2. How many founds has the letter G?
A. Two; the one hard, as gag, got, gum; the other foft, as gentle, gin.

2. When is G founded hard?

A. Before a, o, u, l, and r, as game, gone, gut, glad, green. It is likewise hard at the end of words, as bag, cag, drag, pug. It is also hard before i, as-gift, gird; except in giant, gibbet, gibe, giblets, giles, gill, gilliflower, gin, ginger, gingle, gipfey.

. When is G founded foft?

A. It is generally foft before e, as genius, gesture, except in gear, geld, geefe, get, gewgaw, and derivatives from words ending in g, as ringing, ringer; singing, finger; long, longer; strong, stronger.

2. Does G ever lose its sound?
A. Yes, before n, as gnash, gnaw, gnat, deign, reign, fign, and fome other words. 2. What

2. What is the found of gh?

A. In the beginning of a word it has a hard found, as ghost, ghastly: in the middle and end it is generally filent, as though, bright, fight, mighty, weighty.

2. Has not gb, at the end of some words, the sound

A. Yes, as cough, tough, rough, enough.

 \mathfrak{D} . What is the found of H?

A. H has properly no found of itself: it is only a note of aspiration, and thews that the following vowel must be pronounced with a strong breath, as hand, bead.

2. Is not H fometimes pronounced faintly?

A. Yes, and indeed is almost filent, as heir, herb, bestier, benour, bour, humble, beneft, humour. In some words it is entirely mute, as rhapfody, rhetoric.

2. How is 7 founded?

A. It is always founded like a foft g, and always begins a syllable, jack, jew, jig, joke, judge.

K

Q. What is the found of K?

A. It has the found of hard c, and is used to supply the place of that letter before e and i, where c would naturally be foft, as keen, kernel, kid, kick.

2. Is K ever mute?
A. Yes, before n, the only conforant that follows it, as knap, knee, knife.

2. What is the found of L?

A. L has a foft liquid found, as land, ballad, beautiful.

When is L doubled?

A. At the end of monofyllables, as ball, bell, bill, boll, bull; except when a diphthong comes before it, as mail, Steel, Stool, foul.

2. Is

Q. Is not L fometimes mute?

A. Yes, in calf, balf, calves, balves, could, would, should, balk, talk, walk, chalk, stalk, pfalm, falmon, falcon, folk, yolk, and some other words?

2. How is le founded at the end of words?

A. Like a weak el, in which the e is almost silent, as able, feeble, bible, bottle, buckle.

2. Does L never change its found?

A. It is pronounced like r in the word Colonel.

M

Q. What have you to observe of the letter M?

A. M has always the same sound, as man, mummy, mum.

2. Does M never change its found?

A. It founds like n in accompt, accomptant, though these words are frequently written as they are pronounced.

2. What is the found of N?

A. N is always founded in the fame manner, as name, none, nun.

2. Is Never mute?

A. It is always mute at the end of words after m, as damn, condemn, contemn, column.

Q. What is the found of P?
A. P has always the same sound, as print, paper,

2. Does P never lose its sound?

A. It loses its found, or at least is very little heard, in the beginning of some words, as pfalm, ptisan, Ptolemy; and between m and t, as tempt, prompt, fump. tugus.

2. What is the found of Ph?

A. Ph is founded like f, and is used chiefly in words derived from the Greek, as physic, geography, paragraph.

2. What have you to remark of the letter 2?

A. Q is always followed by u, and is founded like ku, or rather like cw, as quart, quell, quibble, quote. Qu in words from the French, is fometimes founded like k, as conquer, liquor, pique, piquant, piquet, antique, oblique.

R

 \mathfrak{D} . What is the found of R?

A. R has always the same rough snarling sound, and hence it is called the canine or dog letter, as road, rural, roar.

2. Does not h fometimes come after it?

A. Yes, in a few words derived from the Greek or Latin, and there the h is always filent, as rheum, rhubarb, rhime.

2. How is re founded at the end of words?

A. Like a weak er, as acre, lucre, sceptre, spectre, theatre.

Q. How many founds has S?
A. Two; a foft hiffing found, as filly, fin; and a gross hard found, like z, as blows, crows.

2. When has fa hard found?

A. At the end of words, as flies, lies, except this, thus, us, yes, in which it is founded foft. It is likewife hard before ion, if a vowel goes before, as invafrom, adhefron, confusion; but if a consonant goes before it, it founds like th, as perversion, reversion. It is also hard before e mute, as accuse, amuje; and before y final, as bufy, eafy, daify; and in these words, tofom, defire, wisdom, prison, present, damsel, casement, and perhaps a few others.

2. Does f ever lofe its found?

A. Yes, in ifle, ifland, demesne, viscount, Carliste, &c.

T

2. How is T founded?

A. Thas always the fame simple found, as table, tatter, trout.

What is the found of Ti?

A. Ti before a vowel founds like shi, as creation, repletion, addition, potion, refolution; except an I goes before it, and then it retains its natural found, as beftial, fuftian, &c. It likewife retains its natural found, when a confonant follows it, as till, time, title. does the fame before comparatives in er, and superlatives in eft, from adjectives ending in y, as haughtier, haughtieft, from haughty; as also in the plural number of nouns, and the fecond and third person of verbs ending in ty, as beauties, counties, to empty, thou emptieft, ne emptieth, or emptied.

2. How many founds has Th?

A. Two; the one loft, as thou, thee; the other hard, as thanks, theme.

2. When is it foft?

A. It is foft in the following words: thou, thee, thy, thine, the, this, thus, that, theje, theje, they, them, their, there, then, thence, whether, either, neither, though; and in all words between two vowels, as mother, brother; and between r and a vowel, as farther, farthing.

2. When is it hard?

A. In almost all words but those above-mentioned, as think, thrive, through, thrust, thing, throng, death, wrath. To foften th at the end of words, e filent is commonly added, as bath, bathe; fwath, fwathe; breath, breathe; cloth, clothe.

Q. What is the found of V? A. The found of V is nearly the same with that of F, as vain, very, view, vote, vulgar. It is never doubled, however strong the accent upon it may be; nor does it ever end a word without e illent after it, as cave, wave, drove, dove.

2. What have you to observe of the letter W?
A. It is both a vowel and a consonant.

Q. When is it a confonant?
A. When it begins a word, and is followed by a vowel, as wall, web, wife, world.

2. When is it a vowel?

A. When

A. When it follows a, e, or o, and unites with them into a diphthong, as hawl, brawl, hew, pew, how, fow. In other cases it is not a vowel, after a, as await, awake, award, away, awhile.

2. Is it ever mute?

A. Yes, in whore, wholesome, answer, sword; and always before r in the fame fyllable, as wrath, wren, write, wrote, wry.

X

Q. What is the found of X?

A. It is equivalent to that of ks or cs, as axe, wax, vex, fix, ox, flux.

Does it ever begin a word?

A. Never, but in proper names derived from the Greek, as Xantippe, Xenophon, Xerxes.

2. What is remarkable in Y?

A. Y, like w, is both a vowel and a confonant.

2. When is it a vowel?

A. When it follows a confonant, as by, my, thy.

9. When is it a confonant?

A. When it precedes either a vowel or a diphthong, as yet, yellow, youth.

2. How many founds has Y? ...
A. Three; one as a confonant, and two as a vowel.

2. What is its found as a confonant?
A. Strong, as yacht, yes, yoke.

2. What is its found as a vowel?

A. In words of one syllable it is sharp and clear, as ery, dry, fly, fly. In words of more fyllables than one, it is fost and obscure, as any, many, folly; except at the end of verbs, where it is again sharp and clear, as deny, comply.

2. Is it ever found in the middle of words?

A. Seldom; it is there generally changed into i, as duty, dutiful; except in some words of Greek extraction, as bymm, festem. Z

Z

Q. What is the found of Z?

d. It is founded like s hard, or ds, though the d is fcarcely heard, as hazard, wizard, buzzard.

2. Does it begin any word?

d. It begins no words originally English: those it begins are derived from foreign languages, as zeal, zenith, zephyr, zone.

2. Have you any more observations to make on the

Letters?

A. No.

2. Are those you have made sufficient to teach any

one the true found of them?

A. No: nor is it possible to teach the true sound of them in writing; any more than it is to make a man hear with his eyes, or see with his ears, or to substitute one sense in the room of another. The true sound of the letters can only be learned by practice, and by the affistance of a master.



PART II.

CHAPTER I.

ETYMOLOGY.

2: WHAT is Etymology?

A. Etymology is that part of Grammar, which teaches the derivation of one word from another, and the different methods in which the fense of the same word is varied; as apple, apples; sweet, sweeter; I love, I loved.

2. How many kinds of words, or parts of speech, are

there in the English language?

A. Nine.

2. What are they?

A. The Article, Noun, Pronoun, Verb, Participle, Adverb, Preposition, Interjection, Conjunction.

CHAPTER II.

Of the ARTICLE.

2. WHAT is the Article?

A. The Article is a word prefixed to nouns, to limit or determine their fignification.

2. How many Articles are there in the English

tongue?

A. Two, a or an, and the.

2. What is the use of the Article a or an?

A. It ferves to shew, that one only of a kind is meant, but no one in particular; as This is a fine pen, that is, one of the pens that are fine, without mentioning any particular pen. Hence it is called the Indefinite Article.

2. When is a used?

A. Before nouns beginning with a confonant, as a ball, a club, a dance.

2. When is an used?

A. Before nouns beginning with a vowel, as an ape, an eel, an onion; or b mute, as an heir, an herb, an hour.

2. What is the use of the Article the?

A. It serves to confine the sense to one or more of a kind, as This is the man whom I faw; Thefe are the women whom I met: that is, this particular man, and these particular women. For this reason it is called the Definite Article.

2. Are no nouns used without Articles?

A. Yes, proper names, as Alexander, Cafar, Homer, Virgil, London, Paris; and abstract names, as Virtue, Vice, Beauty, Deformity: though both these are sometimes joined to articles, as an Alexander, that is, a man brave as Alexander; the Cafars, that is, the Roman Emperors of the name of Cæfar; the beauty of Venus, the deformity of Vulcan.

2. Are there not some nouns which never admit the

article?

A. Yes, words taken in the largest and most unlimited fense, as man is a rational creature, that is, all men without exception.

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CHAPTER III.

SECTION I.

Of NOUN

2. HOW many kinds of nouns are there? A. Two; Nouns Substantive, and Nouns Adjective.

2. How do you distinguish a noun substantive from

a noun adjective?

A. A noun substantive will make sense by itself, as a book, a pen, a knife: whereas a noun adjective will not make fense by itself, as good, fine, sharp; unless it be joined with a fubstantive, and then it will make sense, as a good book, a fine pen, a sharp knife.

SECTION II.

Of SUBSTANTIVE NOUNS.

2. What is a Substantive Noun?

A. A Substantive Noun is the name of any thing or person, as a Coat, a Hat, James, George.

2. How many kinds of Substantive Nouns are there?
A. Two; proper and common.

2. What are proper substantive nouns?

A. Such as denote the individuals of any species, as John, the Humber, Canterbury; that is, the name of a particular man, of a particular river, and of a particular city.

2. What are common substantive nouns?

A. Such as denote the kinds or species of things in general, as a tree, a house, a garden; that is, any tree, any house, or any garden.

2. Are the terminations of substantive nouns ever

changed?

A. Yes.

2. On what account?

A. On account of Number, Cafe, and Gender. S E C-

SECTION III.

Of NUMBER.

2. How many Numbers are there?

A. Two; the fingular and the plural.

2. When do we use the fingular number?

A. When we speak of one person or thing only, as a lord, a luider.

2. When do we use the plural number?

A. When we speak of more than one person or thing, as lords, ladders.

2. How is the plural number formed?

A. By adding s to the fingular, as plum, plums; pear, pears.

2. Is it always fo formed?

A. No; for when the fingular number ends in ch, sh, ss, or x, then the syllable es must be added, as crutch, crutches; bush, bushes; witness, witnesses; fox, foxes.

2. Does the addition of the letter s increase the num-

ber of fyllables?

A. Not in general; as father, fathers; mother, mothers.

2. Does it not sometimes do so?

A. Yes, in words ending in ce, ge, se, and ze; as prince, princes; cage, cages; purse, purses; prize, prizes.

2. How do nouns that end in f or fe form c.eir plural?

A. By changing f or fe into ves; as calf, calves;
half, haives; leaf, leaves; sheaf, sheaves; f if, selves;
shelf, shelves; loaf, loaves; knife, knives; life, lives;
thief, thieves; wife, wives; wolf, wolves.

2. Are there no exceptions to this rule?

A. Yes; many nouns ending in f or fe form their plural in the usual coanner, by adding s; as hoof, roof, proof, chief, handkerchief, mischief, grief, relief, wharf, dwarf, scarf, sife, strife; and most nouns ending in ff, as scoff, cliff, skiff, muff, ruff, cuff, snuff, stuff; except staff, which makes staves.

2. How do nouns ending in y form their plural?

A. By changing the y into ies; as story, stories; cherry, cherries: unless the y in the singular make part

of a diphthong, for then the y is retained, and the plural is formed by only adding s; as boy, boys; day, days; ray, rays; play, plays; way, ways.

2. Do all plurals end in s or es?

A. No; fome end in en; as man, men; woman, women; child, children; brother, brethren, or brothers; ox, oxen Some end in ce or fe, as loufe, lice; moufe, mice; die, dice; goofe, geefe; penny, pence.

2. Do all nouns differ in the fingular and plural

number !

A. No; fome nouns are the fame in both, as sheep, deer. When they are of the fingular number, a is prefixed to them.

2. Have all nouns both a fingular and plural number? A. No; some have no singular; as alms, annals, ashes, bellows, bowels, breeches, creffes, entrails, lungs, sciffars, shears, snuffers, thanks, tongs, wages, &c. Others, on the contrary, have no plural, as the proper names of men, women, cities, rivers, mountains, countries; as William, Anne, London, the Thames, Snowdon, Wales: the names of virtues and vices; as generofity, avarice: the names of metals; as gold, filver, copper; the names of herbs; as mint, sage, except leeks, nettles, and a few others: the names of feveral forts of corn and pulse; as wheat, barley, rye, except oats, tares, peas, beans: and the names of liquids; as wine, ale, beer, oil. But some of these, when they fignify several forts, are used in the plural; as wines, oils.

SECTION IV.

Of CASES.

2. What are the Cases of nouns?
A. The cases of nouns are those changes in their terminations, which ferve to express their connection with, or relation to, other things.

How many cases are there in the English?

A. There are two cases; the Nominative, and the Genitive.

2. What is the Nominative case?

A. The Nominative case is that in which a thing is fimply mentioned; as a boy, a girl.

2. What

What is the Genitive case?

A. The Genitive case is that which implies property or postession; and hence it is frequently called the poi fessive case.

2. How is the Genitive case formed?

A. By adding s, with an apostrophe before it, to the Nominative; as man's strength, woman's beauty.

2. Is not this s, with the apostrophe, a contraction of

bis ?

A. No; for then Mary's fan would be Mary his fan, which would be absolute nonsense.

2. Have not many good writers, however, supposed

it to be fo?

A. Yes; but they have all been mistaken. Q. What is it then?

A. It is an abbreviation of the old Saxon Genitive, which ended in is. Thus the Saxons, to express the treachery of Judas, would have faid Judasis treachery; whereas we now fay, by contraction, Judas's treachery.

Q. Is not this s, as the fign of the Genitive, fome-

times omitted?

A. Yes, and the apostrophe only retained, especially in words that end in fs, as righteoujnefs' fake. This is always the case in plural nouns that terminate in s, as a ladies' boarding school.

2. When three Substantives come together, which

of them has the fign of the Genitive?

A. The fecond, as the King of England's crown; the King of France's family.

2. Is the Genitive case always formed by adding s to

the nominative?

A. No; it is as often formed by putting the particle of before it, as the heat of the fire, the coldness of the water.

2. Have not fome nouns both the letter s with an

apostrophe after, and the particle of before them?

A. Yes; as a play of Shakespeare's, a poem of Pope's. But in these expressions there are really two Genitives; for they mean one of the plays of Shakespeare, one of the poems of Pope.

2. Have not the Greek, the Latin, and some other

languages, more cases than two?

A. Yes,

A. Yes, they have fix, viz. the Nominative, the Genitive, the Dative, the Accusative, the Vocative, and the Ablative; and these cases they have in both numbers.

2. How do the English supply the want of the four

last cases?

A. By means of the prepositions to, for, with, from,

by, &c.

2. May not an English noun therefore, by the help of these prepositions, be declined through all the above cases?

A. It may in the following manner:

SINGULAR NUMBER. PLURAL NUMBER.

Nom. Kings. Nom. a King. a King's. Gen. of Kings. Gen.

of a King. to a King. to Kings. Dat. Dat. Accuf. Kings. Accuf. a King. Vocat. o King. Vocat. o Kings.

with, from, or S with, from, or Ablat. Ablat. by Kings. l by a King.

SECTION V.

Of GENDER.

2. What is Gender?
A. The distinction of sex.

2. How many fexes are there?
A. Two, the male, and the female.

2. Are there only two genders in English nouns? A. No, there are three, the Masculine, the Femi-

nine, and the Neuter.

. What nouns are of the masculine gender?

A. All nouns that fignify males, as a man, a boy.

2. What nouns are of the feminine gender?

A. All nouns that fignify females, as a woman, a girl.

2. What nouns are of the neuter gender?

A. All nouns that fignify either males or females, as a child, a fervant; and especially all nouns that fignify things without life, which have no fex at all, as a house, a garden. 9. How

- 2. How do we distinguish the sexes in English?

 A. We do it in the five following ways:
- I. By using different words to express the difference of fex; as

MALE.	FEMALE.	MALE.	FEMALE.
Batchelor,	Maid, Virgi	in. King,	Queen.
Boar,	Sow.	Lad,	Lufs.
Boy,	Girl.	Lord,	Lady.
Bridegroom,	Bride.	Man,	Woman.
Brother,	Sifter.	Mafter,	Mistrefs.
Buck,	Doc.	Milter,	Spawner.
Bull,	Cow.	Nephew,	Niece.
Bullock,	Heifer.	Ram,	Ewe.
Cock,	Hen.	Sloven,	Slut.
Dog,	Bitch.	San,	Daughter.
Drake,	Duck.	Stag,	Hind.
Father,	Mother.	Uncle,	Aunt.
Friar,	Nun.	Widower,	Widow.
Gander,	Goofe.	Wizard,	Witch.
Horse,	Mare.	Whoremon-	Whore or
Husband,	Wife.	ger,	Strumpet.

II. When there are not two different words to express the difference of sex, or when both sexes are comprehended under the same word, we then add an adjective to it, to shew which sex is meant, as a male child, a female child.

III. We fometimes add another substantive to the word, to distinguish the sex, as a man-servant, a maid-servant, a cock-sparrow, a hen-sparrow.

IV. The Feminine Gender is formetimes formed by changing the termination of the Masculine into est, as

MALE.	FEMALE.	MALE.	FEMALE.
Abbot,	Abbefs.	Deacon,	Deaconess.
Actor,	Actres.	Duke,	Duchefs.
Ambaffador,	Ambaffadrefs.	Elector,	Electres.
Baron,	Baroness.	Emperor,	Empress.
Count,	Countefs.	. Governor,	Governess.
The sale of the sa			Her

MALE.	FEMALE.	MALE.	FEMALE.
Heir, Hunter, Jew, Lion, Marquis, Patron, Prince,	Heirefs. Huntrefs. Jewefs. Lionefs. Marchionefs. Patronefs. Princefs.	Prior, Poet, Prophet, Shepherd, Tutor, Viscount,	Priorefs. Poetefs. Prophetefs. Shepherdefs. Tutorefs. Viscountefs.

Some nouns of the Masculine Gender, in order to form the Feminine, change the termination into ix, as administrator, administrator; executor, executor, &c.

V. We likewise express the difference of sex by the pronouns he, she, or it. When we speak of the male sex, we use the pronoun he; when we speak of the semale sex, we use the pronoun she; and when we speak of things that have no sex at all, or of inanimate things, we use the pronoun it.

2. Do we never apply the pronouns he or she to

inanimate things, as to the fun, moon, earth, &c?

A. Sometimes; but it is only by a poetical or rhetorical figure, by which we give life to things that are really without it.

SECTION VI.

Of ADJECTIVES.

Q. What are Adjectives?

A. Adjectives are words that express the properties or qualities of things, as white, black, sweet, bitter.

2. How do you know whether a noun be an adjec-

tive or a fubstantive?

A. By adding the word thing to it. If, with this addition, it make fense, it is an adjective; if nonsense, it is a substantive: as a good thing, a bad thing: both these expressions are sense: therefore good and bad are adjectives. But a tree thing, a river thing: both these expressions are nonsense; therefore tree and river are substantives.

2. Do adjectives ever change their terminations on

account of gender, case, or number?

A. No: they are joined, without any change of termination, to substantives of all genders, in all cases, and of both numbers; as a good man, a good woman, a good thing; of a good man, of a good woman, of a good thing; good men, good women, good things; of good men, of good women, of good things.

2. Is there no exception to this rule?

A. There seems to be an exception in the pronominal adjectives one, other, another; as with one's own money, by the other's help, at another's expence; where one, other, and another have a genitive Case.

2. On what account do adjectives change their ter-

minations?

A. On account of comparison only.

2. What do you mean by comparison?

A. Comparison is altering the quality into more or less, or marking the different degrees of it.

2. How many degrees of comparison are there?

A. Three; the politive, the comparative, and the superlative.

2. What is the positive degree?

A. The positive degree is that in which the quality is simply expressed; as strong, brave.

2. What is the comparative degree?

A. The comparative degree is that in which the quality is somewhat increased; as stronger, braver.

2. What is the fuperlative degree?

A. The superlative degree is that in which the quality is carried to the greatest height of which it is capable; as frongest, bravest.

t

2. How is the comparative degree formed?

By adding r or er to the positive; as wife, wifer; long, longer.

9. How is the superlative degree formed?

A. By adding st or est to the positive; as wife, wifest; long, longost.

Are all adjectives thus compared?

A. No: adjectives, indeed, of one fyllable, are commonly thus compared; but adjectives of two or more yllables are generally compared by putting more before them

CHAP.

them for the comparative degree, and most for the superlative; as active, more active, most active; generous, more generous, most generous.

2. May not adjectives of one fyllable be compared

in the fame manner?

A. Yes, as fair, fairer, or more fair; fairest, or most

2. May not some adjectives of two syllables be com-

pared by er and eft?

A. Yes, those which end in y, as worthy, lively; or in le, as noble, ample; or which are accented on the last syllable, as complete, polite: thus worthier, worthieft livelier, livelieft; nobler, noblest; ampler, amplest; completer, completest; politer, politest.

2. Are not some other adjectives of two syllables

likewise compared by er and aft?

A. Yes: thus, Ben Johnson has wretcheder for more wretched; and Milton has virtuousest for most virtuous, and famousest for most famous. But these examples are not to be imitated.

2. What have you to fay farther about the compa-

rifon of adjectives?

A. Some comparatives form a superlative by adding most to the end of them; as nether, nethermost; utter, uttermost, or utmost; under, undermost; up, upper, uppermost, or upmost; fore, sormer, foremost. Most is also sometimes added to substantives; as topmost, southmost, westmost.

2. Do any adjectives admit of a double comparison?

A. No, except in the expression most highest, which

is peculiarly applied to the fupreme being.

2. Are all adjectives compared in one or other of

the foregoing ways?

A. No; fome are compared fo irregularly, that they cannot be reduced to any of the forementioned rules; as

Pos. COMP. SUP. Good, Better, Beft. Worle, Bad, Worft. Little, Les, Leaft. Much or many, More, Nio/t. Near, Nearer, Nearest or next. Lates Later or latter, Latest or last.

CHAPTER IV.

Of PRONOUNS.

7 HAT are Pronouns? A. Pronouns, as their name evidently imports, are words that fupply the place of nouns, and are used to prevent the too frequent and sudden repetition of them.

How many kinds of pronouns are there?

A. There are four kinds of pronouns; perfonal, possessive, relative, and demonstrative.

2. Have not fome pronouns a case peculiar to them-

felves?

A. Yes: it is fometimes called the oblique, and fometimes the objective case; and is used after most verbs and prepolitions.

2. Which are the perfonal pronouns?

A. The personal pronouns are I, thou, he, she, it, with their plurals.

2. How are they declined?

A. Thus:

	SING.	PLURAL.
Nominative	I.	We.
Oblique Case	Me.	U_s .
Nominative	Thou.	Ye.
Oblique Cafe	Thee.	You.
Nominative	He. She.	They.
Oblique Cafe	Him. Her	
Nominative	It.	They.
Oblique Cafe	It.	Them.
Genitive	Its.	

2. Is not the pronoun you sometimes used in the sin-

gular number? A. Yes; but it is only by way of ceremony or complaifance; and in order to shew what number it is of, it in it is always joined, or ought to be joined, to a plural the f verb: as you are, you were; though some authors quere write you was.

2. Which are the possessive pronouns?

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A. The possessive pronouns are my, our, thy, your, his, ber, their.

2. How are they declined?

A. As they are wholly of the nature of adjectives, they are, like them, indeclinable; except that, when they are separated from their substantives by a verb, my becomes mine; thy, thine; our, ours; your, yours; her, hers; their, theirs: as This is my book; This book is mine: That is our horse; That horse is ours: This is your coach; This coach is yours: This is her fan; This fan is hers: That is their house; That house is theirs. His is always the same: as This is his hat; This hat is his.

Q. Are not mine and thine sometimes used for my

1and thy?

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A. Yes, before words that begin with a vowel; as mine arm, thine aunt.

2. What do you mean by relative pronouns?

A. Relative pronouns are certain words, that relate to fome fubftantive going before; which is therefore called the antecedent.

2. What are they?

A. Who, which, what, and whether.

2. How are they declined? A. Who is declined thus:

> SING. and PLURAL. Nominative Il bo. Genitive Whole. Oblique Whom.

Whose likewise, especially among the poets, is sometimes used as the genitive of which. What and whether are indeclinable. Who properly relates to persons; which to things.

2. What do you mean by the antecedent to a

relative?

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A. The Noun which goes before it, and to which of, it immediately refers; as Julius Caefar and man in ral the following fentences: It was Julius Caefar who conors quered the Gauls; This is the man whom I faw.

2. Which are the demonstrative pronouns?

A. This, that, other, and the same.

2. How

2. How are they declined?
A. This makes these, that makes these, and other makes others in the plural number. This and thefe refer to things near at hand; that and those to things at a distance. Other is either fingular or plural; for we fay the one fide or the other; and other men, other women. Others is never used but when it refers to a preceding fubstantive: as, some of the scholars were reading; others were writing. The same is indeclinable, and is joined to substantives in both numbers, and in all cafes.

2. Are there no other pronouns but those you have

mentioned?

A. Yes; each, every, either, are pronouns, and may be called distributives, because they mark the individual persons or things that make up a number.

2. Are there not some words that are commonly

joined to pronouns!

A. Yes, own, and felf, in the plural felve Own is added to the polletlives my, our, thy, your, nis, her, their; as my own book, our own house, your own fauit. It gives vigour to the expression, and implies a secret opposition or contrast; as, I bought it with my own money, that is, with no one's elfe. I wrote it with my own hand, that is, without the help of an amanuenfis. Self is added to possessives, as myself, ourselves; and fometimes to perfonal pronouns, as himfelf, itjelf, themselves. It then serves the same purpose as own, by expressing emphasis and opposition; as I delivered it myself, that is, with my own hands, not by the hands of another: or it forms a reciprocal pronoun; as He praises himself; they blame themselves.

C H A P.

Of VERBS.

2. WHAT is a Verb? A. A Verb is a word that fignifies to be, to do, or to fuffer, as I live, I beat, I am beaten.

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2. How many kinds of verbs are there? Three; Active, Passive, and Neuter.

. What is an active verb?

A. An active verb denotes an action, and neceffarily supposes an agent, and an object acted upon; as to praise; I praise John.

2. What is a passive verb?

A. A passive verb denotes a passion, or a suffering, or the receiving of an impression; and necessarily suppofes an object upon which the impression is made, and an agent by whom it is made upon it; as to be praised; fohn is praifed by me.

2. What is a neuter verb?

A. A neuter verb denotes being; or a state or condition of being, when the agent and the object acted upon coincide, and the event is properly neither action nor passion, but rather something between both; as I am, I fit, I fland.

2. Is not an active verb fometimes called a transitive

verb?

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A. Yes, because the action passeth over, as it were, to the object, or hath an effect upon some other thing; as I love James.

2. Is not a neuter verb fometimes called an intran-

fitive verb !

A. Yes, because the action passeth not over to the object, but is wholly confined to the agent; as I waik, I run.

2. Is not the same verb sometimes active, and some-

times neuter?

A. Yes, as I run: here the verb is neuter, because the action, run, is confined to the agent, I, and does not pais over to any object. But I run a race: here the verb is active, because the action run, passes over from the agent, I, to the object, a race.

2. What are the chief properties of a verb? A. Person, number, time or tenie, and mood.

2. How many perions belong to a verb? A. Six; three fingular, and three plural.

2. What are they?

A. i, thou or you, be, she or it; we, ye or you, they.

2. What are their names?

A. I is the first person singular, thou or you the second, he, she, or it the third; we is the sirst person plural, ye or you the second, and they the third.

2. Does the difference of persons occasion any

change in the termination of verbs?

A. Yes: the second person singular, both in the prefent and preter-impersect tense, adds st or est to the sirst person; as I love, thou lovest; I call, thou callest; I loved, thou lovedst; I called, thou calledst. And the third person singular of the present tense, adds th or eth, or s to the sirst person; as I love, he loveth, or loves; I call, he calleth, or calls.

2. Is there any change made in the persons of the

plural number?

A. No; they continue invariable, and are always the fame with the first person singular; as I love, we live, ye love, they love: I loved; we loved, ye loved, they loved.

2. How many numbers have verbs?

A. Two, the fingular and the plural, in the fame manner as nouns.

2. What do you mean by the tense of a verb?

A. The tense of a verb is a particular form of it, expressing the time of the being, action, or passion, which it signifies.

2. How many tenses or times are there?

A. Three; the present, the past, and the suture. Q. Are there really no more tenses or times?

A. Properly speaking there are no more; as all things are either present, past, or suture. But in order to mark more distinctly the different subdivisions of time, Grammarians have invented three other tenses; one in the present, another in the past, and at third in the suture. So that, in the whole, there are no less than six tenses or times.

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.9. What are they?

A. The present tense, the preter-impersect tense, the preter-persect tense, the preter-plupersect tense, the future-impersect tense, and the future-persect tense.

2. What is the present tense?

A. The present tense represents the action as now doing

doing, without any other limitation; as I sup, that is, I am now at supper.

What is the preter-imperfect tense?

A. The preter-imperfect tense represents the action as partly done, but not quite finished, as I supped, that is, I was then at supper.

2. What is the preter-perfect tense?

The preter-perfect tense represents the action as compleatly finished; as I have supped, that is, I have now done supper.

2. What is the preter-pluperfect tense?

A. The preter-pluperfect tense represents the action not only as finished, but as finished before a certain time to which we allude; as I had supped, that is, I had supped, or had done supper, before such a particular hour, suppose ten o'clock.

2. What is the future-imperfect tense?
A. The future-imperfect tense represents the action as yet to come; as I shall or will sup.

2. What is the future-perfect tense?

A. The future-perfect tense represents the action as yet to come, but at the fame time as intended to be finished before a certain circumstance to which we allude; as I shall have supped, that is, I shall have supped, or shall have done supper, before he comes, before the goes, &c.

2. Have you any other observations to make upon

the tenfes?

A. Yes; two of them are simple, and four of them compound.

2. Which are the fimple tenses?

A. The present and the preter-impersect.

2. Which are the compound tenses?

The preter-perfect, the preter-pluperfect, the future-imperfect, and the future-perfect.

2. Why are the two first called simple tenses?

A. Because they are formed of the verb itself, without the affistance of any other verb.

2. Why are the four last called compound tenses?

A Because they cannot be formed without the affistance of some other verb.

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. How are the simple tenses formed?

A. The present tends is the verb itself in its simplest and most original form; as I love, I call. In a preterimperfect tends is formed by adding a to the present tends, if it end in e, or so, it it end in any other letter; as I love, I loved; I call, I called; I turn, I turned. If y be the last letter of the present tense, and make no part of a diphthong, it is, in the preter-imperfect tense, changed into i, as I carry, I carried; I marry, I married. But if y in the pretent tense make part of a diphthong, then it is retained in the preter-imperfect; as I play, I played; I stray, I strayed.

2. Do all verbs form their preter-imperfect tense in

this manner?

A. All regular verbs do; but there are many irregular verbs that form their preter-imperfect tense in another manner; as I sit, I sat; I stand, I stood; I write, I wrote. Of these irregular verbs we shall say more afterwards.

2. Do not even regular verbs, fometimes, form their preient and their preter-imperfect tense in another

manner?

A. Yes, by means of the auxiliary verb to do; as instead of I love, I loved, we sometimes say, I do love, I did love, for the sake of greater emphasis.

2. How are the compound tenses formed?

A. The compound tenses are formed by adding the present tense of the verb, or the participle preterite, to the auxiliary verbs have, be, shall, will, may, can, let, or must: Thus, for instance, (the preter-perfect tense) I have loved; (the preter-plupersect tense) I had loved; (the suture-impersect tense) I shall or will love; (the suture-perfect tense) I shall have loved.

2. What do you mean by a Participle?

A. A Participle is a word derived from a verb, or more properly it is a certain form of a verb, which partakes of the nature of an adjective, as running, learned. Nay, it frequently supplies the place of an adjective, as a running borse, a learned man.

2. How many participles are there?

A. Two; the participle present, and the participle perfect or past.

2. How

2. How is the participle prefent formed?

A. By adding ing to the first person of the present tense, and itricing off e, if the verb end in that letter, as walk, walking; move, moving.

2. How is the participle perfect formed?

A. By adding d to the first person of the present tense, if it end in e; or ed, if it end in any other letter; as blame, blamed; commended.

2. Is the participle perfect always fo formed?

M. No: when the preter-imperiest tense is irregular, the participle persect is commonly irregular likewise; and then it is sometimes the same with that tense, as think, the present tense; thought, the preter-impersect tense; thought, the participle persect: and sometimes different, as give, the present tense; gave, the preter-impersect tense; given, the participle persect. Some verbs have two participles persect, the one regular, the other irregular; as bake, baked, or baken; mow, mowed, or mown: and some have two participles persect, both of them irregular; as drink, drunk, or drunken.

Q. You tay, the auxiliary verbs shall, will, may, can, have, be, let, and must, are employed in forming the compound tenses; and yet, in the examples you gave, you only mentioned have, shall, and will. Of what use are the other auxiliary verbs in forming these

tenses?

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A. The examples I gave were confined to tenses in the indicative mood; the other auxiliary verbs are employed in forming the tenses of the other moods.

2. What do you mean by Moods?

A. Moods are certain forms of a verb, expressing the various intentions of the mind.

2. How many Moods are there?

A. The English, properly speaking, have no moods, that is, they have no difference in the termination of their verbs to signify the different intentions of the mind; but they supply this want by the help of the auxiliary verbs abovementioned, and they make use of five moods, viz. the indicative, the subjunctive, the potential, the imperative, and the infinitive.

2. What is the Indicative Mood?

A. The Indicative Mood simply declares or affirms a thing

a thing, as I love; or it asks a question, as Do I for

What is the Subjunctive Mood?

The Subjunctive Mood mentions a thing conditionally, or by way of supposition. It is commonly subjoined to some other verb, upon which it depends; and has, for the most part, if, though, that, or some other conjunction before it; as if I love; if he write; be will certainly go, if he get have.

2. What is the Potential Mood?

The Potential Mood expresses the liberty of the agent, or the possibility of the action, and is formed by the help of the verbs, may, can, might, could, would, should; as I may play; I can read; I might see; I could bear ; I would speak ; I should give.

2. What is the Imperative Mood?

7. The Imperative Mood commands, entreats, exhorts, or permits; as run thou; let us pass; strive ye; let them go.

. What is the Infinitive Mood?

A. The Infinitive Mood expresses a thing in the largest and most comprehensive sense, and is always preceded by the prepolition to; as to love; to read; to write; to dance.

2. Have you any thing farther to fay concerning the auxiliary verbs shall, will, may, can, have, be, do, let,

and must?

A. As they are of fo much use in forming the compound tenses, all but do, which is never used but in the simple tenses, it will be necessary to shew in what manner they are conjugated, before we proceed to the conjugation of the principal verbs.

2. What do you mean by the conjugation of a verb? A. The method of varying it through all the persons,

numbers, tenses, and moods.

2. How then are these auxiliary verbs conjugated?

A. They are conjugated thus; but first I must obferve, that shall, will, may, can, express no determinate time, and therefore, properly, have no tenses. But they have two forms, one of which expresses absolute certainty, and may, therefore, be called the absolute form;

ENGLISH LANGUAGE. form; and the other implies a condition, and may, therefore, be called the conditional form. Shall. nly Absolute Form. s; PLURAL. SING. ne We Shall. I Shall. e ; Ye Shall. Thou Shalt. They Shall. He Shall. he Conditional Form. ed PLURAL. SING. ld, We should. I should. eld

Will.

Ye should.

They should.

Absolute Form.

SING. PLURAL. We will. I will. Thou wilt. Ye will. He will. They will.

Thou shouldst.

He should.

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Conditional Form.

PLURAL. SING. I would. We would. Ye would. Thou wouldit. They would. He would.

May.

Absolute Form.

PLURAL. SING. We may. I may. Ye may. Thou may/t. He may. They may.

Conditional Form.

SING. PLURAL. We might. I might. Thou might ft. Ye might. He might. They might.

Can.

Can.

Absolute Form.

Sing. Plural.

I can. We can.

Thou canst. Ye can.

He can. They can.

Conditional Form.

SING. PLURAL.

I could. We could.

Thou couldst. Ye could.

He could. They could.

Q. How do you conjugate the other auxiliary Verbs?
The other auxiliary Verbs express a determinate time, and therefore have tenses.

To Have.

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

SING. PLURAL.

I have. We have.

Thou haft. Ye have.

He hath or has*. They have.

Preter-imperfect Tense.

Sing.

I had

Thou hadst.

He had.

Plural.

We had.

Ye had.

They had.

Preter-perfect Tense.

Sing.

I have had.

Thou hast had.

He hath or has had.

Plural.

We have had.

Ye have had.

They have had.

^{*} Hath is the regular termination; but has is more common, both in verse and prose.

Preter-

Preter-pluperfect Tenfe.

PLURAL. SING. We had had. I had had. Ye had had. Thou hadft had. He had had. They had had.

Future-imperfect Tenfe.

PLURAL. SING. I shall or We shall or zvill will Ye shall or Thou Shait have. will or wilt He shall or They shall or will will

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Future-perfect Tense.

SING. PLURAL. have had. We shall or I shall or E have had. will Ye shall or Thou shalt or have had. wilt will He shall or They shall or have had. have had. will will

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Tense.

SING. PLURAL. I have. We have. * Thou have. Ye have. He have. They have.

Preter-imperfect Tense.

SING. PLURAL. We had, &c. as in I had. Thou had. the indicative. He had.

C 6

[&]quot; You, in this and all the other tenses of the Subjunctive Mood, is more common than Thou; and it is in this Mood chiefly that You is used for Thou. Preter-

Preter-perfect Tenfe. SING. PLURAL. We have had, &c. as I have had. Thou have had. in the indicative. He have had. Preter-pluperfect Tense. SING. PLURAL. We had had, &c. as in I had had. Thou had had. the indicative. He had had. Future-imperfect Tense. PLURAL. SING. I shall or We shall or will have, &c. have. as in the indicative. will Thou Shall have. or will He shall or have. Evill Future-perfect Tense. SING. PLURAL. We shall or will have had, I shall or have had. &c. as in the indicative. will Thou shall or have had. will He shall or have had. will Potential Mood. Present Tense. SING. PLURAL. We may or can have. I may or can have. Thou mayst or canst have. Ye may or can have. He may or can have. They may or can have. Preter-imperfect Tenfe. SING PLURAL. I might, could, have. We might, could, } flould or would } Thou mightst, Ye might, could, } have. couldst, shouldst, & have. should, or would \ or wouldst He might, could, }
fhould, or would They might, could, } should, or would }

have.

have.

Preter-perfect Tense.

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SING.		PLURAL.	
I may or	have had.	We may or	have had.
Thou mayst or canst	have had.	Ye may or	
He may or	have had.	They may or can	
		erfect Tenfe.	

SING.		PLURAL.	
I might, could, }	had.	We might, could, } should, or would }	have
Thou mightst, couldst, shouldst, or wouldst	have	Ye might, could, fhould, or would }	
He might, could, should, or would	have	They might, could, fhould or would	have had.

Imperative Mood.

SING.	PLURAL.
Let me have.	Let us have.
Have thou, or do thou have.	Have ye, or do ye have.
Let him have.	Let them have.

Infinitive Mood.

Present.	To have.	Perfect.	Tob	ave	had.
	Pa	rticiple.			

Present.	Having.	Perfect.	Had.
Co	mpound perfect.	Having	had.

To Be.

Indicative Mood.

Prefent Tenfe

	a referre a cine.
SING.	PLURAL
I am.	We are.
Thou art.	Ye are.
He is.	They are.

^{*} Can is seldom used in this tense, except when a question is asked.

Preter-imperfect Tense.

SING.

I was.

Thom wast, or wert*.

He was.

Plural.

We were.

Ye were.

They were.

Preter-perfect Tenfe.

Sing.
I have been.
Thou hast been.
He hath or has been.

Plural.
We have been.
Ye have been.
They have been.

Preter-pluperfect Tense.

Sing.

I had been.

Thou hadst been.

He had been.

They had been.

They had been.

Future-imperfect Tenfe.

SING.

I shall or will be.

Thou shalt or wilt be.

He shall or will be.

Plural.

We shall or will be.

Ye shall or will be.

They shall or will be.

Future-perfect Tense.

PLURAL. SING. We shall or I shall or have been. have been. will will Thou shalt or Ye shall or have been. have been. wilt will He shall or They shall or have been. have been. will will

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Tense.

Sing.

I be.

Thou be, or beeft.

He be.

Plural.

We be.

Ye be.

They be.

^{*} Wert is properly of the Subjunctive Mood, and ought not to be used in the Indicative; though it is so by many good writers. It is therefore here inserted.

Preter-imperfect Tense.

SING. I were. Thou wert. He were.

PLURAL. We were. Ye were. They were.

Preter-perfect Tense.

SING. I have been. Thou have been. He have been.

PLURAL. We have been, &c. 25 in the indicative.

Preter-pluperfect Tense.

SING. I had been. Thou had been. He had been.

PLURAL. had been, &c. in the indicative.

Future-imperfect Tense.

SING. I shall or will be. Thou shall or will be. He shall or will be.

PLURAL. We shall or will be, &c. as in the indicative.

Future-perfect Tense.

SING. I shall or will Thou shall or \ have been. He shall or have been. will

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have been.

PLURAL. We shall or will have been, &c. as in the indicative.

Potential Mood.

Present Tense.

SING. I may or can be. Thou mayst or canst be. He may or can be.

PLURAL. We may or can be. Ye may or can be. They may or can be.

Preter-imperfect Tense.

Sing.		PLURAL.	
I might, could, should, } or would	be.	We might, could, should, or would	be.
Thou mightst, couldst, shouldst, or wouldst	be.	Ye might, could, should, or would	be.
He might, could, }	be.	They might, could, should, or would	be.

Preter-perfect Tense.

Sing.		PLURAL.		
I may or	have been.	We may or can	have been.	
Thou mayst or canst			have been.	
He may or	have been.		have been.	

Preter-pluperfect Tense.

Sing.		PLURAL.	
I might, could, ? foould, or would?	have been.	We might, could }	have been.
Thou mightst, couldst, shouldst, or wouldst	have been.	Ye might, could, fhould, or would	have
He might, could, } fhould, or would }	have been.	They might, could, } should, or would }	beer.

Imperative Mood.

SING.	PLURAL.
Let me be.	Let us be.
Be thou, or do thou be.	Be ye, or do ye be.
Let him be.	Let them be.

Infinitive Mood.

Present.	To be.	Perfect.	To have	been.

Participle.

Present.	Being.	Perfect.	Been.
Comp	ound perfect.	· Having	been.

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To Do.

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

Sing.
I do.
Thou doeft or doft.
He doth or does.

PLURAL.
We do.
Ye do.
They do.

Preter-imperfect Tense.

SING. I did. Thou didst. He did. PLURAL.
We did.
Ye did.
They did.

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Tense.

SING.
I do.
Thou do.
He do.

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To

PLURAL.

We do, &c. as in the indicative

Preter-imperfect Tense.

SING.
I did.
Thou did.
He did.

We did, &c. as in the indicative.

2. Has the Verb To do no more moods or tenses?

A. The neuter or auxiliary Verb To do has no more moods or tenses; but the active Verb To do is regularly conjugated through all the moods and all the tenses.

2. How are let and must conjugated?

A. They are not conjugated at all, for they admit of no variation.

2. You say the auxiliary verbs are of great use in forming the compound tenses: have you any thing else to observe concerning them?

A. It is necessary to observe the true meaning and

import of each.

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Q. What is the meaning of shall and will?

A. Shall, in the first person, simply foretells; in the second and third person, it promises or threatens. Will, on the contrary, in the first person, promises or threatens; in the second and third person, it simply foretells.

2. Is this always their meaning?

A. No; it is their meaning only in affirmative fentences: for when the fentence is interrogative, their meaning, in general, is directly the reverie. Thus, I shall read, you will read, fignify event only. But will you read? implies intention; and shall I read refers to the will of another.

2. What is the meaning of should and would?

A. Should fignifies obligation, and would the inclination of the will.

Q. What is the meaning of may and can?

A. May denotes a right or liberty; can, a power or capacity.

2. What is the meaning of might and could?

A: Might and could fignify likewise a right or liberty, and a power or capacity to do what is mentioned; but suppose, at the same time, the intervention of some obstacle or impediment, that prevents it being done; as I might or could read, i. e. if nothing hindered me.

2. What is the meaning of let and must?

A. Let fignifies permission, and sometimes praying exhorting, commanding. Must denote necessity.

Q. What is the use of do and did?

A. They serve, as was formerly observed, to express a thing with greater force and vigour; as I do write I did write; which are much stronger expressions that I write, I wrote. They are likewise of great use interrogative and negative sentences: as did you write You did not write. They sometimes also supply the place of another verb, and render the repetition of unnecessary; as you mind not your book as he does.

2. How are have and be placed before Verbs?

A. Have, through its feveral moods and tenses, in placed only before the perfect participle; as I have loved, I had loved. Be on the contrary, through its different

different moods and tenses, is placed both before the present and perfect participles; as I am loving, I am loved; I was loving, I was loved.

2. Have you any thing farther to fay concerning

the auxiliary Verbs?

A When an auxiliary is joined to a Verb, the auxiliary goes through all the changes of person and number; and the verb itself continues every where the same.

2. What is the case when two or more auxiliaries

go before a Verb?

A. The first of them only is changed according to person and number: the rest continue without any

change.

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2. Are there not some other Verbs besides those which are called auxiliary, that are placed before other verbs without being followed by the preposition to?

A. Yes; the Verbs bid, dare, make, see, hear, and perhaps some others are used in this manner; as bid him come, I dare not go, you make her cry, I saw it fall,

I heard him fpeak.

2. As you have now mentioned all, or at least the chief properties of the auxiliary verbs, it will be necessary, in the next place, to shew how the principal verbs are conjugated through all the moods and tenses. I therefore desire to know how the active verb To love is conjugated.

A. The active Verb To love is conjugated in the following manner. But first I must observe, that the active form of a verb is sometimes called the active Voice, and the passive form of it, the passive Voice; but this distinction seems to be of very little use, and there-

fore at prefent I shall pay no regard to it.

Active Verb.

To Love.

Indicative Mood. Present Tense.

Sing.
I love.

I love.

Thou lovest.

He loveth, or loves.

Plural.

We love.

Ye love.

They love.

Preter-imperfect Tenfe.

Sing. Plural.

I loved. We loved.

Thou lovedst. Ye loved.

He loved. They loved.

Preter-perfect Tenfe.

Sing.

I have loved.

Thou haft loved.

He hath or has loved.

Ye have loved.

They have loved.

Preter-pluperfect Tense.

Sing.

I had loved.

Thou badft loved.

He had loved.

They had loved.

They had loved.

Future-imperfect Tense.

Sing.

I shall or will love.

Thou shalt or will love.

He shall or will love.

Plural.

We shall or will love.

Ye shall or will love.

They shall or will love.

Future-perfect Tense.

PLURAL. SING. I shall or We shall or 1 have loved. have loved. will . will Ye shall or 1 Thou shalt have loved. have loved. or wilt will He shall or They Shall have loved. have loved. will or will

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Tense.

Sing.

I love.

We love, &c. as in the indicative.

He love.

Preter-

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Preter-

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P	re	ter-	ım	per	fect		en	e.
				1		_		

SING. PLURAL.

Thou loved. We loved, &c. as in the indicative.

He loved.*

Preter-perfect Tense.

Sing.

I have loved.

Thou have loved.

Plural.

We have loved, &c. as in the indicative.

He have loved.

Preter-pluperfect Tense.
Sing. Plural.

I had loved.

We had loved, &c. as in the indicative.

He had loved.

Future-imperfect Tense.

SING.

I shall or will love.

Thou shall or will love.

PLURAL.

We shall or will love, &c.

as in the indicative.

He shall or will love.

Future-perfect Tense.

Sing.

I shall or } have loved.

Plural.

We shall or will have loved, &c. as in the

Thou shall } have loved. indicative.

He shall or } have loved.

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Present Tense.

Sing. Prefent Tenje.
Plural.

I may or can love.

Thou mayst or canst love.

He may or can love.

Ye may or can love.

They may or can love.

* The only difference between the Indicative and the Subjunctive Mood lies in this, that, in the former, the food and third person fingular of the present tense, and the second person singular of all the other tenses, are always different from the first person singular: in the latter, they are always the same with it.

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μ6	A NE	w Gram	MAR OF THE	
	Pret	ter-imperfe	A Tenfe.	
	SING.		PLUR	AL.
In	night, coul	d.)	We might,)
B	ould or	love.	could, Shou	ld, { love.
u	ould		or would	1
Tho	u mightst,	Ì	Ye might,	7
cou	ldft, shoulds	A, > love.	could, Should	ld, { love.
or	wouldst	3	or would)
	might,	.]	They might,	
co	uld, should	l, \ love.	could, shou	ild, \ love.
OI	r would)	or would	J
	P	reter-perfec	t Tense.	
	ING.		PLUR	AL.
may	1 har	e loved.	We may }	have loved.
or can			or can	
Thou ma		ve loved.	Ye may }	have loved.
or can	, ,		or can S	
He may		ve loved.	They may }	have loved.
or can	,			
	Pre	eter-pluperf		
	ING.		PLUE	AL.
might,		(have	We might,	bave
Should,		loved.	could should	loved.
would		3	or would	3
I hou mi		bave	Ye might,	(have
or wor	, shouldst,	(loved.	or would	' (loved.
	ht, could,	3	They might	3 .
should,		(Dave	could locale	L have
would		[loved.	could, should	loved.
		Imperative		
S	ING.	Timperative	PLUE	
Let me le			Let us love.	AL.
	u, or do th	ou love.	Love ye, or a	a ve lave.
Let him			Let them lov	
		Infinitive		
Prefen	t. To lov		Perfect. To	have loved
1.0.01		Partici		
		I altici	Pic.	

Perfect. Loved.

2. Is

Having loved.

refent. Loving.
Compound perfect.

Prefent.

2. Is there not another method of conjugating the

active Verb?

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red._

A. Yes; it may be conjugated by adding its participle present to the auxiliary Verb To be, through all the persons, numbers, tenses, and moods. Thus, instead of I love, Thou lovest, He loves, We love, Ye love, They love, we may say, I am loving, Thou art loving, He is loving, We are loving, Ye are loving, They are loving. Instead of I loved, Thou lovedst, He loved, We loved, Ye loved, They loved, we may say, I was loving, Thou wast loving, He was loving, We were loving, Ye were loving, they were loving; and so on, through all the variations of the auxiliary Verb To be, retaining still the participle present of the principal verb.

2. How is the passive Verb conjugated?

A. As the active Verb may be conjugated by adding the participle present to the verb To be, so the passive verb is conjugated by adding the participle perfect to the same verb To be through all its changes of person, number, tense, and mood.

2. How then is the passive Verb To be loved con-

jugated?

A. It is conjugated thus:

Paffive Verb.

To be loved.

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

Sing.
I am loved.
Thou art loved.
He is loved.

PLURAL.
We are loved.
Ye are loved.
They are loved.

Preter-imperfect Tense.

Sing.
I was loved.
Thou wast loved.
He was loved.

PLURAL.
We were loved.
Ye were loved.
They were loved.

Preter-perfect Tense.

Sing.
I have been loved.
Thou hast been loved.
He hath or has been loved.

PLURAL.
We have been loved.
Ye have been loved.
They have been loved.

Preter-pluperfect Tense.

Sing.

I had been loved.

Thou hadst been loved.

He had been loved.

PLURAL.
We had been loved.
Ye had been loved.
They had been loved.

Future-imperfect Tense.

Sing.

I shall or will be loved.

Thou shalt or wilt be loved.

He shall or will be loved.

We shall or will be loved.
Ye shall or will be loved.
They shall or will be loved.

Future-perfect Tense.

Sing.

I shall or } have been will } loved.

Thoushaltor } have been loved.

He shall or } have been loved.

PLURAL.

We shall or } have been will loved.

Ye shall or } have been loved.

They shall or } have been will loved.

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Tense.

Sing.
I be loved.
Thou be or beist loved.
He be loved.

PLURAL.
We be loved.
Ye be loved.
They be loved.

Preter-imperfect Tense.

Sing.

I were loved.

Thou wert loved.

He were loved.

PLURAL.
We were loved.
Ye were loved.
They were loved.

Preter-perfect Tenfe.

SING.

I have been loved. Thou have been loved. He have been loved.

PLURAL.

We have been loved, &c. as in the indicative.

Future-imperfed Tenfe.

SING.

I shall or will be loved. Thou shall or will be loved. He shall or will be loved.

PLURAL.

We shall or will be loved, &c. as in the indicative.

Preter-perfect Tense.

SING.

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I shall or ? have been will loved. Thoushall or I have been loved. He shall or I have been PLURAL.

We shall or will have been loved, &c. as in the indicative.

Potential Mood. Present Tense.

SING.

I may or can Thou may ft or canit

He may or can be loved.

be loved.

be loved.

PLURAL.

We may or can

Ye may or can

or can

They may

be loved.

be loved.

be loved.

Preter-imperfect Tenfe.

SING.

I might, could, should, or would

Thou mightft, couldst, shouldst, or wouldst

He might, could, Should, or would

be loved.

be loved.

be loved.

PLURAL.

We might, could, should, or would

Ye might, could, should,

or would They might,

could, should, or would

be loved.

D

Preter-perfect Tense.

Sing.		PLURAL.	
I may or		We may or	have been
can			loved.
Thou mayst or canst		Ye may or can	
He may or	have been	They may or	bave been
can	loved.	can	loved.

Preter-pluperfect Tenfe.

Sing. I might, could, fhould, or	have been loved.	PLURAL. We might, could, should,	have bea loved.
would Thou mightst, couldst,shouldst, or wouldst	have been loved.	or would Ye might, could, should, or would	have ben loved.
He might, could, should, or would	have been loved.	They might, could, should, or would	have beat loved.

Imperative Mood.

Sing.	PLURAL.
Let me be loved.	Let us be loved.
Be thou loved, or do thou	Be ye loved, or do ye k
be loved. Let him be loved.	Let them be loved.
Let bim be tovea.	Let them be toota.

Infinitive Mood.

Present.	To be loved.	Perfect.	To have	been	lovet
		Participle.			- [

Perfect. Loved. Compound Perfect. Having ben loved.

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pro deck fixed mea Q. As you have now shewn the manner of conjugating the active and the passive Verb, it will be proper to shew, in the next place, how the neuter Verb is con-

jugated.

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A. The neuter Verb is conjugated like the active; but as it partakes somewhat of the nature of the passive, it admits, in many instances, of the passive form. This happens chiefly in those verbs, which signify some kind of motion, or change of place or condition; as I am arrived; I am become; He is risen; He is fled.

2. Are all Verbs conjugated like the Verb To love?

A. All regular Verbs are; but there are in English, as in every other language, a great many irregular verbs, which are conjugated in a very different manner.

2. What do you mean by regular Verbs?

A. Regular Verbs are those, which form their preterimperfect tense, and their participle perfect or past, which is always the same with the preter-imperfect, in ed; as loved, ruled, called.

Of IRREGULAR VERBS.

2. What do you mean by irregular Verbs?

A. Irregular Verbs are those, which do not form their preter-impersect tense, and their participle persect or past in ed, but in some other manner.

2. In what parts is a Verb irregular?

A. A Verb is irregular in the preter-imperfect tense, and the participle perfect or past only; and indeed considering the small number of variations which an English verb has, it can hardly be irregular in any other part.

2. How many ways may a Verb be irregular?

A. A Verb may be irregular two ways, namely, by contraction, or otherwise.

2. What Verbs are irregular by contraction?

A. Those that end in ch, ck, p, x, m, and n, which change ed into t, for the sake of a more easy and quick pronunciation; as snatch, snatcht, for snatched; deck, deckt, for decked; stop, stopt, for stopped; fix, fixt, for sixed; dream, dreamt, for dreamed; mean, meant, for meaned.

2. A

Q. Are there no other Verbs that change ed

into t?

A. Yes, those that end in ll and fs, which drop one of the double consonants before the t; as fmell, fmelt; blefs, bleft: and those that end in l and p after a diphthong, where the diphthong is changed into a single short vowel; as feel, felt; weep, wept.

2. Are Verbs ending in the above-mentioned letters.

always irregular or contracted?

A. No: they are frequently regular or entire; and indeed it may be faid, that the regular or entire form is in writing, if not in conversation, greatly preferable to the irregular or contracted.

2. What Verbs are irregular otherwise than by con-

t

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d

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de

traction?

A. There are a great many of this fort.

2. Can they be reduced to any certain rules?

A. Not well. Rules, indeed, have been given for this purpose by some grammarians; but they are so numerous and intricate, that they rather tend to perplex the judgment, than to affist the memory of the learner.

2. What then is the best method of understanding

these Verbs?

A. The best method of understanding them seems to be to give a complete catalogue of them, by which means all their irregularities may be seen at one view.

2. I defire you, therefore, to give me a complete

catalogue of these verbs.

A. Here follows a complete, or, at least, a pretty full catalogue of them. It must be observed, however, that some of these verbs are conjugated regularly, as well as irregularly; and where that is the case, an afterisk is subjoined to them.

Preter-imper- fect Tense.	Participle-per- fect.
abode.	abode.
was.	been.
	arifen.
	awoke.*
bare, bore.	born.
	fect Tense. 2bode.

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Present Tense.	Preter-imper- fect Tenfe.	Participle per-
beat.	beat.	beaten.
begin.	began.	begun.
bend	bent.	bent.
unbend.	unbent.	unbent.
bereave.	bereft.*	bereft.*
beseech.	befought.	befought.*
bid.	bid, bad, bade.	bid, bidden.
bind.	bound.	bound.
bite.	bit.	bit, bitten.
bleed.	bled.	bled.
blow.	blew.	blown.
break.	brake, broke.	broke, broken.
breed.	bred.	bred.
bring.	brought.	The second secon
build.	built.*	brought. built.*
burit.	burft.	
		burft, burften.
buy. can.	bought.	bought.
caft.	could.	200
catch.	cast.	cast.
chide.	caught.*	caught.*
	chid.	chid, chidden.
choose, chuse.	chofe.	chose, chosen.
cleave.	clave, clove, cleft.*	cleft, cloven.
cling.	clang, clung.	clung.
clothe.	clad.*	clad.*
come.	came.	come.
coft.	coft.	cost.
crow.	crew.*	crowed.
cut.	cut.	cut.
dare.	durst.*	dared.
die.	died.	dead.
dig.	dug.*	dug.*
draw.	drew.	drawn.
drink.	drank, drunk.	drunk, drunken.
drive.	drove.	driven, drove.
eat.	eat, ate.	eat, eaten.
fall.	fell.	fallen.
feed.	fed.	fed.
fight.	fought.	fought.
	D 3	find.

F

Present Tense.	Preter-imper- fect Tense.	Participle per- fect.
find.	found.	found.
flee.	fled.	fled.
fling.	flung.	flung.
fly.	flew.	flown.
forfake.	forfook.	forfaken.
freeze.	froze.	froze, frozen.
get.	gat, got.	got, gotten.
give.	gave.	given.
go.	went.	gone.
grind.	ground.	ground.
grow.	grew.	grown.
hang.	hung.*	hung.*
have.	had.	
hear.	heard.	heard.
hew.	hewed.	hewn.*
hide.	hid.	hid, hidden.
hit.	hit.	hit.
hold.	held.	holden, held.
hurt.	hurt.	hurt.
knit.	knitted.	knitted, knit.
know.	knew.	known.
	laid.	laid.
lay. lead.	led.	led.
	left.	left.
leave.	lent.	lent.
	let.	let.
let.	lay.	lain, lien.
lie.	loaded.	loaden, laden.*
	loft.	loft.
lofe.	made.	made.
make.		
may.	might.	
meet.	met.	met. mown.*
mow.	mowed.	mown."
must.		
ought.	ought.	- Lie
pay.	paid.	paid.
put.	put.	put.
	quoth he.	
read.	read.	read.
		rend.

Present Tense.	Preter-imper- fect Tense.	Participle per- fect.
rend.	rent.	rent.
rid.	rid.	rid.
ride.	rode.	ridden.
ring.	rang, rung.	rung.
rife.	role.	risen.
rive.	rived.	riven.
run.	ran.	run.
fay.	faid.	faid.
faw.	fawed.	fawn.*
fee.	faw.	feen.
feek.	fought.	fought.
feethe.	feethed.	fodden.
fell.	fold.	fold.
fend.	fent.	fent.
fet.	fet.	fet.
shake.	shook.	shook, shaken.
fhall.	fhould.	
fhave.	shaved.	fhaven.*
shear.	sheared, shore.	fhorn.
shed.	fhed.	fhed.
fhine.	fhone.*	fhone,*
fhoe.	fhod.	fhod.
shoot.	fhot.	fhot.
fhew.	fhewed.	fhewn.*
show.	fhowed.	fhown.*
fhrink.	fhrank, fhrunk.	fhrunk.
fhut.	fhut.	fhut.
fing.	fang, fung.	fung.
fink.	fank, funk.	funk.
fit.	fat.	fat, fitten.
flay.	flew.	flain.
flide.	flid.*	Milden.
flink.	flunk.	flunk.
fling.	flang, flung.	flung.
flit.	flit.*	flit.
finite.	fmote.	fmitten.
fnow.	fnowed.	fnown.*
fow.	fowed.	fown.*
fpeak.	fpake, fpoke.	fpoken.
ipcax.	D 4	fpee

fpeed.

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Present Tense.	Preter-imper- fect Tenfe.	Participle per- fect.
fpeed.	fped.	fped.
fpend.	lpent.	fpent.
fpin.	tpan, fpun.	fpun.
fpit.	tpat.	fpitten.
fplit.	iplit.	fplit.*
spread.	fpread.	fpread.
fpring.	iprang, fprung.	fprung.
itand.	flood.	flood.
fteal.	ftole.	stolen, stoln.
ftick.	ituck.	fluck.
fling.	itung.	stung.
stink.	Hank, Stunk.	ftunk.
· ftride.	strode.	stridden.
strike.	ttruck.	struck, strucken,
ftring.	ftrung.	ftrung.
ftrive.	ftrove.*	ftriven.
ftrow.	ftrowed.	ftrown.
fwear.	fwore, fware.	fworn.
fweat.	fweat, fwet.*	fweat, fweaten.
fwell.	fwelled.	fwollen.
fwim.	fwam, fwum.	fwum.
fwing.	fwung.	fwung.
take.	took.	taken.
teach.	taught.	taught.
tear.	tore, tare.	torn.
tell.	told.	told.
think.	thought.	thought.
thrive.	throve.*	thriven.
throw.	threw.	thrown.
thrust.	thrust.	thruft.
tread.	trode.	trodden.
trow.		
wear.	wore.	worn.
weave.	wove.*	woven.*
wet.	wet.	wet.
will.	would.	
win.	wan, won.	won.
1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1		1 *

wound.

wind.

won. wound.*

wis.

Present Tense.	Preter-imper- fect.	Participle per- fect.
wis.	wift.	
wit, wot.	wot.	
work.	wrought.*	wrought.*
wring.	wrung.*	wrung.*
write.	wrote, writ.	written, writ, wrote.

2. Does this catalogue contain all the Verbs that

are irregular otherwise than by contraction?

A. It contains the greatest part of them; though it might have been rendered much larger, if not more complete, by inserting many verbs, which are irregular only by contraction, but seem to be irregular in another manner: as creep, crept; keep, kept; sweep, swept; sleep, sleep; geld, gelt; gild, gilt; gird, girt, &c.

2. When a Verb has two preter-imperfect tenses,

which of them is most frequently used?

A. When a Verb has two preter-imperfect tenses, one of them is generally the same with the participle perfect; and then that one is most frequently used in conversation, and the other is, or ought to be, most frequently used in writing.

2. Why ought the other to be most frequently used

in writing !

A. For the fake of greater perspicuity of style; as every thing that conveys a different idea should, as much as possible, be expressed by a different word.

2. Is this rule always observed?

A. No; good writers neglect it frequently, and bad writers almost always.

2. Are they not fometimes guilty of a greater

blunder?

A. Yes; they sometimes consound the preter-imperfect tense and the participle perfect in those verbs, which have them quite different from one another. Thus nothing is more common than the following expressions; He begun, for He began; He run, for He ran; where the participle perfect is used for the preter-imperfect tense. On the contrary, the preter-imperfect

perfect tense is frequently used for the participle pertect: as I have Spoke, for I have Spoken; It was Spoke, for It was spoken.

2. How many Verbs are there in the English

language?

A. Some Grammarians fay, there are about four? thousand three hundred, regular and irregular, simple and compound; but as we are daily borrowing new Verbs, as well as other words from foreign languages, it feems to be difficult, if not impossible, to fix their precise number.

2. How many of these Verbs are irregular?
A. About one hundred and seventy.

H A P. VI.

Of PARTICIPLES.

2. WHAT is a Participle?

A. A Participle, as was faid above, is a word derived from a Verb, or, more properly, it is a part of a Verb, which partakes of the nature of an Adjective; as loving, loved.

2. How many participles are there?

A. Strictly speaking, there are but two participles.

What are they?

The participle present or active, as calling; and the participle perfect or past, as called.

2. How are they formed?

A. The manner of forming them is described in page 31; and, that I may not be tedious, I shall not here repeat it. I shall only observe, by way of supplement to what is there faid, that Verbs of one Syllable, which end with a fingle confonant preceded by a fingle vowe!, double the final confonant in the participle prefent, as well as in every other part of the verb in which a fyllable is added; as fit, fitting, fitteth; shut, shutting, shutteth. This is likewise the case with verbs of more than one fyllable, if they have the accent on the last syllable; as begin, beginning, beginneth;

neth; commit, committing, committed. But if the accent be not on the last syllable, the final consonant is not doubled; as enter, entering, entereth; render, rendering, rendereth.

2. You say that, strictly speaking, there are but two participles: do you mean that any more participles

are used?

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A. Yes, there is a third participle used, called the compound perfect participle.

2. How is it formed?

A. It is formed by adding the participle perfect to the word having; as having loved, having called, having taken.

2. You say a participle partakes of the nature of an adjective: do you mean that it is the same with an

adjective?

A. In some respects it is the same with an Adjective;

in other respects it differs from it.

2. In what respects is it the same with an Adjective?

A. It is the same with an adjective in so far as it expresses the property or quality of a thing, and, when joined to a substantive, makes good sense; as a purling stream, a scorching sun, a learned man, an accomplished woman.

2. In what respects does it differ from an Adjective?

A. It differs from an Adjective in as far as it signifies being, doing, or suffering; as living, whipping, whipped: which a simple Adjective does not, as white, black, hard, soft; none of which signify either being,

doing, or fuffering.
2. Does it differ from an adjective in any other

respect?

A. Yes: it differs from an adjective in as much as it expresses time; as turning, the present time; turned, the past time: which a simple adjective does not, as high, low, sweet, sour; none of which denote any time.

2. Is not the present or active participle sometimes

used in a passive sense?

A. Yes, as dinner is dreffing, the clothes are making the books are binding. Dr. Johnson says that this is a vicious expression, probably corrupted from a phrase more pure, but now somewhat obsolete, viz. Dinner is a dref-

a dreffing, the clothes are a making, the books are a binding; a being properly at, and dreffing, making, and binding verbal nouns fignifying action. This participle, too, has fometimes a before it, when it is used in an active fense, as he is gone a-fishing, they are gone awalking.

2. Is not the prefent or active participle fometimes

used as a substantive noun?

A. It is fo in the opinion of some Grammarians, who give, for examples, fuch expressions as the following; a little learning, a great building, a fine painting, a good understanding; where the words learning, building, painting, and understanding, are, they say, all participles used as substantives. But it is more probable, that these seeming participles are real substantives, or at least participles converted into substantives, as they have all the properties of substantives, that is, they make fense by themselves, and they make sense when joined with adjectives.

C H A P. VII.

Of ADVERBS.

WHAT are Adverbs?

A. Adverbs, as well as prepositions, interjections, and conjunctions, are by fome called Particles; that is, they are certain little words that are wholly indeclinable.

2. What is the proper use of Adverbs?

A. They serve to express the manner and other circumftances of an action; as justly, now, soon.

2. Why are they called Adverbs?

A. Because they are, for the most part, added to Verbs; as He reads well, He writes neatly, She dances gracefully, She fings sweetly.

2. What other words are they joined to, beside

Verbs?

A. They are joined to Adjectives, to Participles, and fometimes to other Adverbs.

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A. 1. They are joined to adjectives; as extremely cold, intenfely hot. 2. They are joined to participles; as greatly daring, highly deferving, deeply read, thoroughly versed. 3. They are joined to other Adverbs; as very much, not very wifely.

2. How many kinds of Adverbs are there?

A. There are as many kinds of Adverbs as there are circumstances of an action. Their number, therefore, is very great. They may perhaps be reduced to the following Heads, viz. Adverbs of time, place, number, order, quantity, quality; and adverbs of affirming, denying, interrogating, doubting, and comparing.

2). What are the Adverbs of time?

A. The Adverbs of time are divided into four claffes.

2. What are they?

A. Adverbs of the time prefent, of the time past, of the time to come, and of an uncertain or undetermined time.

What are the Adverbs of the time present?

A. Now, instantly, presently, to-day, &c.

2. What are the Adverbs of the time past?
A. Lately, already, before, yesterday, beretofore, bitherto, long fince, long ago, &c.
2. What are the Adverbs of the time to come?

A. To-morrow, not yet, bereafter, benceforth, benceforward, by and by, &c.

2. What are the Adverbs of an uncertain or unde-

termined time?

A. Oft, often, oft-times, oftentimes, foon, feldom, daily, weekly, monthly, yearly, always, when, then, ever, never, &c.

2. What are the Adverbs of place?

A. Here, there, where, elsewhere, Somewhere, nowhere, everywhere, above, below, within, without, together, apart, hither, thither, whither, upward, downward, forward, backward, hence, thence, whence, &c.

2. What are the Adverbs of number?

A. Once, twice, thrice, &c.

2. What are the Adverbs of order?

A. First, or firstly, secondly, thirdly, fourthly, fifthly, &c.

2. What are the Adverbs of quantity?

A. Much, little, enough, somewhat, something, &c.

2. What are the Adverbs of quality?

A. Adverbs of quality are formed from adjectives by adding ly to them, and they denote the fame quality as the adjectives from which they are formed; as wifely, foolishly, quickly, Assoly.

2. May adverbs of quality be derived from all ad-

jectives in this manner?

- A. Adverbs of quality may be derived, in this manner, from most adjectives, except from such as themfelves end in ly, which do not eafily admit of such a derivation. Some, however, derive adverbs of quality in this manner; as from holy, godly, fome derive holily, godlily: but these words are rather grown obsolete, and it feems better to fay in a holy, godly manner.
 - 2. What are the adverbs of affirming? A. Yea, yes, verily, truly, certainly, &c. 2. What are the adverbs of denying?

A. Nay, no, not, no wife, &c.

2. What are the adverbs of interrogating? A. How, why, wherefore, whither, &c.

2. What are the adverbs of doubting?
A. Haply, perhaps, peradventure, pollibly, &c.

Q. What are the adverbs of comparing?

A. As, fo, more, most, less, least, very, almost, well nigh, little less, alike, otherwise, &c.

2. Are adverbs ever compared?

A. Sometimes, as foon, fooner, foonest; often, oftener, oftenest. Adverbs in ly are compared by more and most, as bappily, more bappily, most bappily.

2. Are not adverbs in ly fometimes compared by er

and eft?

A. They were fo formerly; as gladly, gladlier, gladlieft; hardly, hardlier, hardlieft. But this manner of comparing them is now out of use, except among the poets.

2. Have you any thing farther to observe concerning

adverbs?

A. It may be observed, that many of the adverbs abovee, less, least. Nay, some of them are even substantives, as yesterday, to-day, to-morrow. The truth is, there are many words in the English language, that are sometimes used as adjectives, and sometimes as adverbs: there are others, that are sometimes used as fubstantives, and sometimes as adverbs; and nothing but the sense can determine what part of speech they are.

2. Can you give any examples?

A. Here follow a few. More things may be learned from reading than conversation: here more is evidently an adjective, because it makes sense when joined to thing, which is the true definition of an adjective. John is more diligent than James: here more is evidently an adverb, for it is only a particle used in comparing the adjective diligent. Most things may be had in London: here most is plainly an adjective, for the first of the above-mentioned reasons. Peter is the most industrious man I ever knew: here most is plainly an adverb, for the last of the above-mentioned reasons. A little thing offends a fool: here little is an adjective. I little thought it would ever have come to this: here little is an adverb. Less things have produced greater effects: here less is an adjective. The Spaniards are less lively than the French: here less is an adverb. The least thing you can do is to offer him your affiftance: here least is an adjective. The most learned men are the least conceited: here least is an adverb. To-day's lesson is longer than yesterday's, but to-morrow's will be longer than either: here yesterday, to-day, and to-morrow are all substantives, because they are words that make sense by themselves, and admit besides of a genitive case. But He came home yesterday, he sets out again to-day, and he will return to-morrow: here these words are all adverbs of time, because they answer to the question when.

2. Are not several other of these Adverbs used as

Substantives?

A. They are so in the opinion of some Grammarians; and even Dr. Johnson, in his Dictionary, sets them down as substantives. The following examples will make the matter plain. He gave more of it to his

his brother than he kept to himself: Most of the farly were gone to church: Little said is soon mended: Le, will maintain a girl than a boy: The least I expected was to be thanked for my trouble. Here it is evident, that more, most, little, less, least, are used as substantives; but it is natural to think, that they are not real substantives, but only adverbs that supply the place of substantives. Much is likewise used as a substantive, an adjective, or an adverb: thus, much of the land was lest untilled; much money has been laid out upon that house; it is much better to go than stay. In the first of these sentences, much is a substantive; in the second, it is an adjective, and in the third, an adverb.



C H A P. VIII.

Of PREPOSITIONS.

2. WHAT is a Preposition?

A. A Preposition is a word that expresses the relation which one word has to another, and performs in English what in Latin is effected by cases, or the different terminations of nouns.

2. What are the principal prepositions?

A. They are as follow; above, about, after, against, among, amongst, at, before, behind, below, beneath, beside, besides, between, beyond, by, for, from, in, into, of, off, out of, on, upon, over, through, till, until, to, unto, toward, towards, under, up, with, within, without.

2. Will it not be proper to explain the meaning of

these prepositions?

A. No more than it is to explain the meaning of any other words in the English language. Some Grammarians, indeed, have done so; but such an explanation belongs rather to a dictionary than a Grammar.

2. Why are these words called Prepositions?

A. Because they are commonly placed before the words to which they refer: as He wrote it with a pencil; He gave it to his fifter.

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2. Are they always fo placed?

A. No: they are fometimes placed after the word to which they refer; as How much did you buy it for? Instead of, For how much did you buy it?

2. To what kinds of words are prepositions com-

monly joined?

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A. They are joined to several kinds of words, viz.

1. To substantive nouns: as He came to England; He went from London. 2. To pronouns: as He spoke to me; He waiked with him. 3. To verbs in the infinitive mood: He promised to write; I was obliged to stand: They deserve to be punished. 4. To the compound perfect participle: as After having dined; After having been dressed. And 5. Sometimes to adverbs: as From hence, from thence, from whence. But these last expressions are rather improper: as hence, thence, and whence, include in themselves the meaning of from: hence signifying from this place; thence, from that place; and whence, from what or which place.

2. Have you any thing elfe to fay concerning pre-

politions?

A. Some of them are used separately, or by themselves: others in composition: and some are used both the one way and the other.

2. Which of them are used separately, or by them-

felves?

A. Those I have already mentioned.

2. Which of them are used in composition?

A. Some of those I have already mentioned; as after, for, over, out, under, up, with: and some that I have not yet mentioned; as a, be, fore, mis, un. These last never stand separately, or by themselves; and are therefore called inseparable prepositions.

2. Are there any other prepositions used in the com-

polition of English words?

A. Yes, there are a great many Latin, and some Greek prepositions.

2. What are the Latin prepositions used in the com-

position of English words?

A. The Latin prepositions are ab or abs, ad, ante, circum, con for cum, contra, de, dis, di, e or ex, extra,

211,

in, inter, intro, ob, per, post, pre, preter, pro, re, retro, se, sub, subter, super, and trans.

2. What are the Greek prepositions used in the

composition of English words?

A. The Greek prepositions are a or an, amphi, anti, byper, bypo, meta, peri, and syn.

2. Will it not be proper to explain the meaning of

these prepositions?

A. Yes, because all of them, except after, for, over, out, under, up, with, being inseparable prepositions, that is, being used only in composition, their meaning cannot be easily found in the dictionaries.

2. I defire you, therefore, to give me, in the first place,

the meaning of the English prepositions.

A. I thall give their meaning as well as I can, confidering them in an alphabetical order; thus, a, after, be, for, fore, mis, over, out, un, under, up, with.

The ENGLISH PREPOSITIONS,

used in Composition, explained.

Q. What then is the meaning of a in the beginning of words?

A. A sometimes signifies in or on; as abed, ashore, that is, in bed, on shore. It is frequently redundant or superfluous: as arise, for rise; arouse, for rouse; awake, for wake.

2. What is the meaning of after?

A. After means being posterior in point of time; as afternoon, i. e. the latter part of the day; aftertimes, i. e. succeeding times.

2. What is the meaning of be?

A. Be is sometimes superfluous; as to bewail. But it is often significant, and has various meanings. It signifies, 1. Over, as to besprinkle, i. e. to sprinkle over.

2. By or nigh, as beside, i. e. by or nigh the side. 3. In, as betimes, i. e. in time, or early. 4. For and beforehand, as to bespeak, i. e. to speak for besorehand.

2. What is the meaning of for?

A. For means negation or privation, that is, it denies or deprives; as to forbid, i. e. to bid it not to be done.

2. What is the meaning of fore?

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A. Fore means before or beforehand; as to foretell, i. e. to tell beforehand: to forewarn, i. e. to warn beforehand.

Q. What is the meaning of mis?

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A. Mis denotes defect or error; as my heart misgave me, i. e. my heart failed me: misconduct, i. e. bad conduct: mismanagement, i. e. bad management: misunder-standing, i. e. bad or wrong understanding.

2. What is the meaning of over?

A. Over fignifies pre-eminence or superiority; as to overcome, to overtop, to overpower. It likewise fignifies excess; as to overdo, to overload.

2. What is the meaning of out?

A. Out fignifies excess, excellence, or superiority: as to outbid, to outrun, to outshine, to outstrip, to outvie.

2. What is the meaning of un?

A. Un fignifies negation or contrariety, that is, it gives to the compound word a fenfe directly opposite to that of the simple one; as able, unable; grateful, ungrateful; to do, to undo; to lock, to unlock; to tie, to untie. Sometimes it is superfluous; as to unloose, i. e. simply to loose.

A. What is the meaning of under?

A. Under has various meanings. It signifies, 1. Inferiority in rank or place; as an under-clerk, an underfervant. 2. Diminution of value; as to under-rate. 3. Privacy or secrecy; as underband, to under-mine. 4. It sometimes alters the sense of the simple verb; as to stand, to understand.

2. What is the meaning of up?

A. Up denotes a higher fituation, as upland; or motion upwards, as to uplift, to uprear.

2. What is the meaning of with?

A. With fignifies against; as to withstand, i. e. to stand against. Sometimes it has the same meaning as from or back; as to with-hold, i. e. to hold from one; to withdraw, i. e. to draw back.

The LATIN PREPOSITIONS, used in the Composition of English Words, explained.

2. We now come to the Latin Prepositions, used in the composition of English words; and considering them

them, like the English, in an alphabetical order, I defire you to give me their true meaning.

A. I shall do so in the best manner I am able. 2. What then is the meaning of ab or abs?

A. Ab or abs fignifies from, that is, a parting, or feparation; as to abstract. Sometimes it fignifies aversion; as to abbor. This meaning, indeed, is nearly akin to the former. And sometimes it signifies ill; as to abufe, i. e. to ufe ill.

2. What is the meaning of ad?

A. Ad fignifies to or at; as to adhere, to adjoin.

2. What is the meaning of ante?
A. Ante fignifies before; as Antechamber, i. c. the chamber before the principal apartment : Antediluvian, i. e. before the flood.

2. What is the meaning of circum?

A. Circum fignifies about; as circumspect, i. e. looking about, fo as to be on one's guard; to circumvent, i. e. to go about one, fo as to deceive him.

2. What is the meaning of con?

A. Con from cum, fignifies with or together: as to condole, i. e. to lament with; to connect, i. e. to join together; to converse, i. e. to talk together.

2. Have you any other observations to make upon

the prepolition con?

A. Con before l changes the n into l; before r into r; and before m and some other letters, into m: as to collate, to collect; to correct, to correspond; to commit, to communicate; to combine, to comprehend, &c. Sometimes the n is entirely omitted; as to co-exist, to co-here, to co-operate.

2. What is the meaning of contra?

A. Contra fignifies against; as to contradict. Counter has the fame meaning, and comes from the French, word contre; as to counter-act, to countermand, &c.

2. What is the meaning of de?

A. De fignifies a kind of motion from; as to degrade, to depart, to detach, to devolve. Sometimes it only augments the force of the fimple word; as to deprive, to determine, to denominate.

2. What is the meaning of dis?

A. Dis fignifies difference or diversity, and in general neral gives to the compound word a fense directly opposite to that of the simple one; as to disable, to disappoint, to disgrace. Sometimes, however, it seems to be superstuous, or, at most, to strengthen the meaning of the simple word; as to disannul, i. e. to annul; to dissever, i. e. to sever, or separate entirely.

2. What is the meaning of di?

A. Di renders the word more strong and expreffive; as to diminish, to dilacerate: or it signifies to depart from; as to digress, i. e. to go out of the strait road; to diverge, i. e. to tend various ways from one point.

2. What is the meaning of e or ex?

A. E or ex fignifies out: as to elect, i. e. to choose out of a number; to erase, i. e. to scratch out; to expell, i. e. to drive out; to expunge, i. e. to wipe out.

2. What is the meaning of extra?

A. Extra fignifies out of, or beyond; as extraordinary, i. e. out of the common order; extra-judicial, i. e. out of the regular course of justice; extravagant, i. e. beyond the due bounds; extramundane, i. e. beyond the limits of the world.

2. What is the meaning of in?

A. In has a negative or privative sense; as inactive, inconvenient, indecent, ineffectual.

2. Has it always this sense?

A. No: it fometimes serves, on the contrary, to strengthen the meaning of the simple word; as to incite, to instance, to ingratiate. But this happens chiefly in those cases where the simple word is not used. Where the simple word is used, in has, for the most part, a negative sense.

2. Are not tome words compounded with the pre-

position en?

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A Yes; and this preposition is of French extraction.

2. What have you to fay of the preposition en?

A. It has never a negative, but always a positive sense, that is, it serves to render the word more strong and expressive; as to encourage, to enhance, to enlarge.

2. Is there any refemblance between the prepolitions

un, en, and in?

A. They refemble each other, or rather they differ in this, that un has always a negative fense; en always a posi-

a positive one; and in sometimes a negative, and sometimes a positive one.

2. Are not en and in frequently confounded in com-

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position?

A. Yes; but very improperly. The more distinct they are kept, so much the better. The composition of words, and consequently their sense, will be the more easily discovered.

2 Have you any other observations to make upon

the preposition in?

A. In, like con, before I, changes n into 1; before r, into r; and before m, and fome other letters, into m: as illegal, illustrious; irregular, irrefistible; immense, immoveable; impartial, impertinent, &c.

2. What is the meaning of inter?

A. Inter signifies between; as to intervene, i. e. to come between; to interrupt, i. e. to hinder the process of any thing, by breaking in upon it. Sometimes it has a negative sense; as to interdict, i. e. to forbid. Some words are compounded with enter, which is derived from the French preposition entre; as enterprize, entertainment.

2. What is the meaning of intro?

A. Intro is a Latin adverb derived from the prepofition intra, or perhaps it is the fame preposition ending in a different letter. It is never used but in composition, and always signifies in or into: as to intromit, i. e. to send in; to introduce, i. e. to bring in.

2. What is the meaning of ob?

A. Ob commonly fignifies against; as to object, to obstruct. Sometimes it fignifies out; as to obliterate, i. e. to blot out. Sometimes b is changed into c; as to occur: and fometimes into p; as to oppose.

9. What is the meaning of per?

A. Per fignifies through; as to perambulate, i. e. to walk through; to pervade, i. e. to pass through.

2. What is the meaning of post?

A. Post fignifies after; as postscript, i. e. written after; a posthumous work, i. e. a work published after the author's death.

2. What is the meaning of pre?

A. Pre comes from the preposition pra, and fignishes before;

before; as to predict, i. e. to tell before: to prefix, i. e. to place before; to prejudge, i. e. to judge before.

2. What is the meaning of preter?

A. Preter fignifies beside or contrary to; as preternatural, i. e. contrary to the common course of nature.

2. What is the meaning of pro?

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A. Pro fignifies forth, forward, or beforehand; as to produce, i. e. to bring forth; to proceed, i. e. to go forward; to prognosticate, i. e. to tell beforehand.

2. What is the meaning of re?

A. Re fignifies again or back; as to reprint, i. e. to print again; to re-deliver, i. e. to deliver back; to repay, i. e. to pay back; to repulse, i. e. to beat back.

9. What is the meaning of retro?

A. Retro fignifies backward; as retrograde, i. e. going backward; retrospect, i. e. a looking backward.

2. What is the meaning of fe?

A. Se fignifies from; as to secede, i. e. to withdraw from; to seclude, i. e. to confine from; to seduce, i. e. to draw aside from what is right.

2. What is the meaning of fub?

A. Sub fignifies under; as to subscribe, i. e. to write under; to subject, i. e. to reduce under the dominion of another; to substitute, i. e. to place in the room of another.

2. What is the meaning of fubter?

A. Subter likewise signifies under; as subterfuge, i. e. a slying away in an under-hand manner; an evasion.

2. What is the meaning of super?

A. Super fignifies upon, or over and above; as superficial, i. e. lying on the surface; to superadd, i. e. to add over and above; to superintend, i. e. to look over, or over-see. In some words that come from the French it is changed into sur, which has the same meaning with super; as to surmount, to surpass, to surprise, to survive, &c.

2. What is the meaning of trans?

A. Trans fignifies over or beyond. When joined to some verbs, it denotes a change of place; as to transport, i. e. to carry over; to transgress, i. e. to go beyond; to transplant, to transpose, to transmit, &c. When joined to some other verbs, it denotes a change of shape;

as to transform, to transfigure. Sometimes it fignifies through; as transparent, i. e. what may be feen through. Sometimes it strengthens the meaning of the verb; as to transact.

The GREEK PREPOSITIONS, used in the Composition of English Words, explained.

2. What is the meaning of a or an?

A. A or an fignifies privation or negation: as anomalous, i. e. not regular: anonymous, i. e. without a name; anarchy, i. e. want of government.

2. What is the meaning of amphi?

A. Amphi fignifies on both sides, or on either side; as amphibious, i. e. animals that can live both on land and in water.

2. What is the meaning of anti?

A. Anti fignifies against, or opposite to: as antidote, i. e. a remedy against poison; antichristian, i. e. opposite to christianity; anticourtier, i. e. one that opposes the court.

2. What is the meaning of hyper?

A. Hyper fignifies above or beyond; as Hypercritic, i. e. a critic that is nice beyond use or reason.

2. What is the meaning of bypo?

A. Hypo fignifies under or privately; as hypocrite, i. e. one that in public pretends to great fanctity, but in private is very wicked.

2. What is the meaning of meta?

A. Meta, like trans, fignifies beyond, or change; as to metamorphose, i. e. to change from one shape to another.

2. What is the meaning of peri?

A. Peri fignifies about; as period, i. e. the time in which any thing turns about, or returns to its former state; the periphery, i. e. the circumference.

2. What is the meaning of fyn?

A. Syn fignifies with or together; as fynonymous, i.e. different words agreeing together in sense.

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C H A P. IX.

Of INTERJECTIONS.

JHAT are Interjections? A. Interjections are certain particles, or

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little imperfect words, that express some sudden emotion or passion of the mind; as ah! oh! phy!

2. Why are they called Interjections?

A. Because they are thrown in between the parts of a fentence, without making any other alteration in it.

2. How many kinds of Interjections are there?

A. There are as many kinds of Interjections as there are different emotions or passions of the mind; so that they cannot eafily be reduced to any fixed number.

2. How are they divided by Grammarians?

A. They are differently divided by different Gram-Perhaps they may be pretty conveniently marians. distributed into the following classes, viz. 1. Interjections of admiring. 2. Of contempt or aversion. 3. Of shouting or exulting. 4. Of mirth or joy. 5. Of forrow. 6. Of filence. 7. Of languor. 8. Of calling to.

2. What are the interjections of admiring? A. Lo! behold! strange!

2. What are the interjections of contempt or avertion?

A. Phy! fob! avaunt! pish! pshaw! pugh! tut! tush!

2. What are the interjections of fnouting or exulting?

A. Heigh! buzza!

2. What are the interjections of mirth or joy?

A. Ha! ha! he! hey! heyday!

2. What are the interjections of forrow?

A. Ah! O! oh! alack! alack-a-day! alas! alasthe-day!

2. What are the interjections of filence?
A. Hist! whist! hush! mum!

2. What are the interjections of languor?

Q. What are the interjections of calling to?
A. Holla! foba! bo! boa! bem! bee! hip!

2. Are not adjectives sometimes used as interjections?
A. Yes; as softly! gently!

CHAP.

C H A P. X.

Of CONJUNCTIONS.

2. WHAT are Conjunctions?

A. Conjunctions are words that join together fentences, or the different parts of a fentence, and shew the manner of their dependence upon one another: as my brother and fifter are gone to school; I neither faw him nor heard him. In these sentences, and, neither, and nor, are conjunctions.

2. How many kinds of Conjunctions are there?
A. The manner of claffing them is somewhat arbitrary: they may perhaps be reduced to the following heads, viz. Conjunctions copulative; disjunctive; caufal, or fuch as imply a cause; conditional; concessive; and fuch as imply an inference.

2. Which are the conjunctions copulative?

A. The conjunctions copulative are and, also, likewife, both, as well as, &c.

2. Which are the conjunctions disjunctive?

A. Or, nor, either, neither, but, except, than, yet, unless, neverthelefs, otherwife, fave, faving, whether, whether or not, &c.

2. Which are the conjunctions causal, or such as

imply a cause?

A. For, because, seeing, forasmuch as, so, whereas, fince, &c.

Which are the conditional conjunctions?

A. If, as, if so be, that, provided, &c.

2. Which are the concernve conjunctions.

A. Though or the, although, netwithstanding, &c. Q. Which are the conjunctions that imply an inference?

A. Therefore, wherefore, then, &c.

Are not some of these conjunctions adverbs?

A. Yes; and the fense only can determine whether they are used as conjunctions or adverbs.

******************** H A P.

Of the DERIVATION of WORDS. O you remember the definition you gave of Etymology?

A. Yes.

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Yes.

2. Please to repeat it.

A. Etymology is that part of Grammar, which teaches the derivation of one word from another, and the different methods in which the fense of the same word is varied.

2. Etymology then confifts of two parts?

A. It does.

2. Which of these parts have you explained?

A. I have explained the fecond.

Q. Why have you explained the fecond before the first?

A. Because the first cannot be understood without

previously understanding the second.

2. Will it not, therefore, now be proper to explain the fecond part of Etymology, or the derivation of one word from another?

A. It will.

2. How then are words derived from one another?

A. Words are derived from one another in various ways.

2. Mention a few of them.

A. 1. Substantives are derived from Verbs. 2. Verbs are derived from Substantives, from Adjectives, and sometimes from other parts of speech. 3. Adjectives are derived from Substantives. And, 4. Substantives are derived from Adjectives.

2. How are Substantives derived from Verbs?

A. I. Substantives are derived from Verbs by converting the present tense of the Verb into a substantive: as love, drink, a fight, a fright; from the verbs to love, to drink, to fight, to fright. 2. Sometimes they are derived from the perfect tense of the verb; as a stroke, from struck, the perfect tense of the verb to strike.

3. The participle present is converted into a substantive, or at least is considered as such; and these substantives signify the action of the verb they are derived from; as loving, drinking, fighting, frighting, striking. And 4. Substantives are derived from verbs by adding er to the present tense, and these substantives signify the agent, or person acting; as lover, drinker, fighter, frighter, striker.

2. How are verbs derived from substantives, adjec-

tive, and other parts of speech?

A. 1. Sometimes they are derived from them without any change at all: as to fail, to fait, to tayle, from the fubitantives a fail, fait, tajte; to flight, to jungle, to warm, from the adjectives flight, fingle, warm; and h further, to forward, from the adverbs jurther, forward. 2. Sometimes they are formed by lengthening the vowel, or fostening the conforant: as to house, (pronounce house) from house; to graze, from grafs; to prize, from price; to breathe, from breath; to prease, from freath. And 3. Sometimes they are formed by adding en, efpecially to adjectives: as to lengthen, from length; to frengthen, from fice ofth; to deepen, from deep; to ripen, from ripe; to wide, from wide.

2. How are adjectives derived from fubiliantives? A. Adjectives are derived from fubitantives by adding

y, ly, en, ful, forne, or lefs.

2. What kind of acjectives are derived from sub-

stantives by adding y?

A. Adjectives of plenty: as health, healthy; wealth, wealthy; weight, weighty; wind, windy; worth, worthy; wit, witty. If the inblantive end in e, the e is struck off in forming the adjective: as bone, bony; flough flony; greafe, greafy.

2. What kind of adjustives are derived from fub-

stantives by adding is?

A. Adjectives of linenes, the h that is added having the fame meaning as Eke, and indeed being only a contraction of it, as earth, earthly; beaven, beavenly; man, manly; woman, comunity; king, kingly; ford, lordy. Some adjectives are likewife for ned from other adjectives in the farie manner; as good, goody; weak, weakly. And adverbs of quality, as was observed above, are formed from adjectives by adding the fame termination: as brave, bravely; bold, so, by; fwift faiftly, flow, flowly.
2. What kind of adjectives are derived from fib-

flantives by adding on?

A. Adjustives that fightfy the matter out of which any thing made: as ale, aben; beach, beachen; birch, birchen; ouk, oaken: example, an oaken flick, i. e. a flice 2. What made of oak.

9. What kind of adjectives are derived from sub-

stantives by adding ful?

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A. Adjectives fignifying plenty or abundance: as hope, hopeful; joy, joyful; fruit, fruitful; watch, watchful; brim, brimful; beauty, beautiful; play, playful.

2. What kind of adjectives are derived from fub-

stantives by adding some?

A. Adjectives that likewife fignify plenty or abundance, but in a less degree than those that end in y or ful; some having the same meaning as something, or in fome degree: as delight, delightjome; game, gamesome; burden, burdenfome; trouble, troublesome; hand, hand-Jome; play, playfome.

2. Are not some of these adjectives derived from

other adjectives?

A. Yes, as dark, darksome; weary, wearisome. 2. Are not some of them also derived from verbs?

A. Yes: as to irk, irksome; to tire, tiresome.

2. What kind of adjectives are derived from sub-

stantives by adding lefs?

A. Adjectives of want: as father, fatherles; mother, motherles; child, childless; worth, worthless; name, nameles; blame, blameles.

2. Are not some acjectives formed from other ad-

jectives, or from fubstantives, by adding ish to them?

A. Yes: and these adjectives, when they come from other adjectives, fignify a diminution or leffening of the quality: as white, whitish, i. e. somewhat white; black, blackish, i. e. somewhat black. When they come from fubiliantives, they fignify likeness or tendency to a character: as child, childish; boy, boyish; girl, girli,b. Some nouns belonging to nations are formed in the same manner; as English, Scottish, Irish, Spanish, Danish, Swedish, Turkish, &c.

2. Are not some adjectives formed from substantives

or verbs, by adding the termination able?

A. They are; and these adjectives signify capacity: as arfever, answerable; remark, remarkable; to move, movable; to improve, improvable.

2. How are substantives derived from adjectives?

A. Substancives are derived from adjectives by adding the termination nefs: as white, whitenefs; black, E 3 blackness; blackness; fwift, fwiftness; flow, flowness; bard, hardness; soft, softness.
2. Are not some substantives derived from adjectives

in another manner?

A. Yes: some substantives are derived from adjectives, by adding th or bt, and making a finall change in forme of the letters : as long, length; strong, strength; broad, breadth; wide, width; high, height; deep, depth; true, truth; warm, warmth; dry, drought. Some fubstantives are formed from verbs in the same manner: as to hear, birth; to die, death; to draw, draught; to fly, flight; to grow, growth; to fical, flealth; to weigh, weight.

2. Are there any other ways, besides those you have

mentioned, of deriving words from one another?

A. There are so many other ways, besides those I have mentioned, of deriving words from one another, that it is extremely difficult and almost impossible to enumerate them. The primitive words in any language are very few: the derivative form by far the greatest number. I shall only observe here, that some substantives are derived from other substantives by adding the terminations bood or bead, thip, ery, wick, rick, dom, ian, ment, and age.

2. What kind of substantives end in hood or head?
A. Substantives that fignify character or quality; as brotherhood, fifterhood, manhood, widowhood, godhead.

2. What kind of substantives end in ship?

A. Substantives that fignify office, employment, state or condition; as stewardship, lordship, kingship, fellow-ship, partnership, chancellorship. Some substantives in thip come from adjectives; as hard, hardthip.

2. What kind of substantives end in ery?

A. Those that fignify action or habit; as flavery, knavery, foolery, drollery, roguery, prudery, waggery. Some substantives of this fort come from adjectives; as brave, bravery.

2. What kind of fubstantives end in wick, rick, and

dom?

A. Those that fignify jurisdiction or dominion; as bailiwick, Sheriffwick, bishoprick, dukedom, popedom, kingdom.

2. What kind of substantives end in jan?

A. Substantives that fignify profession; as physician, musician, logician, mathematician, rhetorician.

2. What kind of substantives end in ment and age?

A. These substantives come from the French, and generally signify the act or the habit; as commandment, usage.

2. Are not some substantives in ard derived from

verbs or adjectives?

A. Yes, and they fignify character or habit; as drunk, drunkard; dote, dotard; wife, wizzard; dull, dullard.

2. Are there not some derivative nouns that end

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A. Yes: they are of French original, and fignify the posselfor: as grantée, i. e. one to whom a grant is made; lessée, i. e. one to whom a lease is made; les atee, i. e. one to whom a legacy is lest; mortgagée, i. e. one to whom a mortgage is given.

2. Are any of our substantive nouns diminutives?

A. Yes; and they are formed by adding the terminations in, ing, ock, and the like: as lamb, lambkin; man, manikin; pipe, pipkin; goofe, goslin; duck, duck-ling; nurse, nursling; young, youngling; bill, billock; cock, cockerel; pike, pickerel; part, particle; chick, chicken; river, rivulet. In the same manner are formed patronymicks or surnames; as Hall, Halkin, or Hawkin, or Hawkins; Will, Wilkins; Thom, Thomkin; Peter, Peterkin, or Perkin.

2. Are there not some English words derived from

the Latin?

A. There are a great many English words derived from the Latin, the French, and several other languages; so many indeed, that it is almost impossible to compute their number. And the impossibility is the greater, as the French borrow from the Latin, and we both from the Latin and the French; so that it is disficult, in many cases, to say whether we borrow from one or the other.

2. Give me an example.

A. The word grace, for instance, is by some said to come from the Latin word gratia; by others, from the French word grace: and it certainly comes more naturally from the latter than it does from the former.

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blackness; swift, swiftness; slow, slowness; bard, kardness; soft, softness. 2. Are not some substantives derived from adjectives

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A. The word grace, for instance, is by some said to come from the Latin word gratia; by others, from the French word grace: and it certainly comes more naturally from the latter than it does from the former.

E 4 2. What

2. What are the principal English Words that come

from the Latin?

A. Those tout end in new or ey, in ty, in ion, in ude, id, in n, t, or r, between two vowels, in nt, in al, il, in ions or cus, and uous.

Q. From what Latin words do the English ones that

end in nee or ey come?

A. From Latin words that end in tia, by changing tia into ce or cy: as from abundantia, comes abundance; from patientia, patience; from constantia, constancy; from clementia, clemency.

2. From what Latin words do the English ones that

end in ty come?

A. From Latin words in tas, by changing tas into ty: as dignitus, dignity; equitas, equity; equalitas, equality; libertas, liberty; majestas, majesty.

2. From what Latin words do the English ones that

end in ion come?

A. From Latin words in io, by adding n: as actio, action; additio, addition; subtraction; multiplication; divisio, division; reduction, reduction; nation; nation; relation; relation; opinion.

2. From what Latin words do the English ones

that end in ude come?

A. From Latin words in udo, by changing o into e: as fortitudo, fortitude; gratitudo, gratitude; multitudo, multitude; altitude; longitudo, longitude.

2) From what Latin words do the English ones that

end in i.! come?

A. From Latin words in idus, by throwing away us: as acidus, acid; acridus, acrid; frigidus, frigid; horridus, borrid; placidus, placid; putridus, putrid; rigidus, rigid; timidus, timid; turgidus, turgid.

2. From what Latin words do the English ones that

end in a, t, or r, between two vowels, come?

A. English substantives that end in n or r, between two vowels, come from Latin substantives in ina or ura, by changing a into e: as disciplina, discipline; doctrina, doctrine; natura, nature; statura, stature. But English adjectives that end in n, t, or r, between two vowels, come from Latin adjectives in us, by changing us into e: as maxinus, marine; terrenus,

terrene;

terrene; politus, polite; completus, complete; purus, pure; obscurus, obscure.

2. From what Latin words do the English ones

that end in nt come?

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A. From Latin words in ns by changing s into t: as arrogans, arrogant; elegans, elegant; flagrans, flagrant; reluctans, reluctant; decens, decent; deficient, deficient; delinquent.

2. From what Latin words do the English ones that

end in al come?

A. From Latin words in alis, by throwing away is: as equals, equal; frugals, frugal; liberals, liberals, naturals, natural; univerfals, univerfal.

2. From what Latin words do the En lish ones that

end in il come?

A. From Latin words in ilis, by throwing away is: as Aprilis, April; civilis, civil.

2. From what Latin words do the English ones that

end in ious or ous come?

A. From Latin words in ofus, by throwing out the f: as curiofus, curious; generofus, generofus; laborious; laborious; laborious; laborious; laborious, studiolus, studiolus, invidiolus, sucidious.

Q. From what Latin words do the Englith ones that

end in uous come?

A. From Latin words in uus, by inferting a between the two u's: as atticuus, affiduous; contiguus, contiguus, irriguous, irriguous.

2. May not force of these words be derived from the

French as well as from the Latin?

A. Yes: ione of them are derived from the French immediately, though from the Latin originally, and indeed they come more naturally from the for each of they do from the liner: as course, flature, come more early from the French work, nate., flature, which are exactly the lane what then, he was do from the Latin words, nature, flature, flature

Q. Are there not some English word folely from the Frence, and not tall how

A. Yes; as garden, garre bucker, dance, to aid, to cry, to pland, exc. S

words jardin, jartiere, bouclier, avancer, danser, aider, erier, plaider, &c.

2. In what manner are English Verbs derived from

Latin ones?

A. Some are derived from the present tense, and some from the supine.

2. Mention a few of those that are derived from the

prefent tenfe.

A. To commend, from commendo; to convince, from convinco; to divide, from divido; to provide, from provideo; to perfuade, from perfuadeo; to refide, from refideo; to redeem, from redimo; to repel, from repello, &c.

2. Mention a few of those that are derived from

the jupine.

A. To accommodate, from accommodatum; to enumerate, from enumeratum; to exaggerate, from exaggeratum; to translate, from translatum; to conduct, from conductum; to oppress, from oppressum, &c.



PART III.

C H A P. I.

S Y N T A X.

2. WHAT is Syntax?

A. Syntax, or, as it is fometimes called, Construction, is the right ordering of words in a fentence, so as to make the meaning clear and distinct.

Q. Is that the best order of words in a sentence,

which makes the meaning most clear and distinct?

A. Certainly.

2. What is a fentence?

A. A fentence is a number of words joined together in such a manner as to form a complete sense.

2. How many kinds of fentences are there?
A. Two, simple and compound.

A. Two, simple and compound. Q. What is a simple sentence?

A. A simple sentence consists of one nominative case, and one finite verb: as I read; John wrote; James loves. Or it consists of one nominative case, one finite verb, and one substantive noun, or pronoun, in the oblique or objective case: as I read a book; John wrote a letter; James loves him.

2. What is a compound fentence?

A. A compound sentence consists of two or more simple sentences joined together by a relative or conjunction: as I read a book which is very entertaining; John wrote a letter, which he sent to his father; James loves him, and is very kind to him.

2. Is not Syntax, or Construction, commonly di-

vided into two parts?

A. Yes.

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2. What are they?

A. Concord or agreement, and regimen or government.

2. What is concord or agreement?

A. Concord or agreement is, when one word agrees with another; that is, when it is required to be in the like case, number, gender, or person.

A. What is regimen or government?

Q. Regimen or government is, when one word governs another; that is, when it causes it to be in some case or mood.

2. What is the best method of explaining fyntax,

or conferuction?

A. Different authors have followed different methods: the most rational one seems to be, to take the parts of speech in their natural order, and shew the syntax or construction of each.

C H A P. II.

The CONSTRUCTION of ARTICLES, NOUNS, and PRODUNS.

2. WHAT is the construction of the articles?

A. A or an is put before nouns in the fingular number only; as a man, a woman, a child.

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words jardin, jartiere, bouclier, avancer, danfer, aider, crier, plaider, &c.

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2. Mention a few of those that are derived from the

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AR T III.

C H A P.

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2. Is that the best order of words in a sentence,

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A. Certainly.

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HAP. II.

The CONSTRUCTION of ARTICLES, NOUNS, and PRONOUNS.

THAT is the construction of the articles? A. A or an is put before nouns in the fingular number only; as a man, a woman, a child. The The is put before nouns both in the fingular and plural number: as the man, the woman, the child; the men, the women, the children.

2. Is not a formetimes put before nouns in the plu-

ral number?

A. Yes, in a few phrases; but they are rather irregular: as a few men, a few women.

2. What is the construction of substantives?

A. One substantive is sometimes added to another in the same case, in order more exactly to determine its meaning; as Cato the Gensor, Seneca the Philosopher, William the Conqueror, King George. Sometimes one Substantive governs another in the genitive case: as Pope's works, or the works of Pope. This genitive is called the possessive case, because it always implies possession or property.

2. Is not the governing substantive sometimes

omitted?

A. Yes; as St. Paul's, St. James's; that is, St. Paul's church, St. James's palace. This omission occurs frequently in common conversation: as I called at the bookseller's; I have been at my father's or my uncle's: that is, I called at the bookseller's shop; I have been at my father's, or my uncle's house.

2. What is the construction of adjectives?

A. As adjectives have no variation of gender or number, they do not admit of much construction. Some pronominal adjectives have a change of number, and agree with their substantives in that particular: as this man, that woman; these men, those women.

2. In what part of a fentence is the adjective usually

placed?

A. Immediately before the substantive; as a good boy, a pretty girl.

2. Is it always fo placed?

A. No; it is sometimes placed after the substantive.

2. In what cases?

A. 1. When it is emphatical; as Alexander the great, Leo the tenth, Henry the fifth. 2. When a clause of a fentence depends upon it; as a man true to his trust; feed me with food convenient for me. 3. For the take of greater harmony; as, O grace divine!

9. How

Q. How is the adjective placed when the verb To be comes between it and the substantive?

A. It is placed either before or after the fubstantive:

as happy is the man; God is gracious.

2. May not two or more adjectives be joined to one

fubitantive?

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A. Yes; and then they either go before or follow it: as a wife, learned, and pious man; or a man wife, learne!, and pious. Sometimes one or two adjectives go before the substantive, and one follows it: as a goodly dwelling, and a rich; a goodly, portly man, and a corpulent: Shakespeare.

2. Is not the adjective sometimes expressed, and the

fubitantive omitted?

A. Yes: as the twelve, that is, Apostles; the candid, the judicious, that is, persons.

2. What is the construction of the distributive pro-

nominal adjectives each, every, and either?

A. They are used only in the singular number; as each man, every woman, either of the two, either the man or the woman.

2. What is the construction of Pronouns?

A. Pronouns, as was observed above (page 24.) are divided into four, or rather into five classes, viz. perfonal, tossessive, relative, demonstrative, and distributive.

2. What is the construction of personal pronouns?

A. Personal Pronouns, in the nominative case, are placed before finite verbs; as I read, thou writest, he plays, we run, &c. In the oblique case, they are placed after active or transitive verbs: as John sees me; James hears thee; William loves him, &c. This will appear more clearly when we come to speak of the construction of verbs.

2. What is the construction of possessive pronouns?

A. Possessive Pronouns are real adjectives, and are construed in the same manner as adjectives; as my book, your pen, his knife, &c. The only difference is, that when they are separated from their substantives by a verb, or when they are used to answer a question, my becomes mine; thy, thine; our, ours; your, yours; her, hers; their, theirs: as this hat is mine; these gloves

gloves are yours. Whose cap is this? It is mine. (See page 25.)

2. What is the construction of relative pronouns?

A. A Relative Pronoun agrees with its antecedent (See page 25.) in number and person; as I who read, thou who writest, he who draws, we who dance, &c.

2. Have you any thing elfe to fay concerning the

construction of relative pronouns?

A. Who relates to persons; which, to things; that, which is a relative as well as a demonstrative pronoun, relates both to persons and things. What includes both the antecedent and the relative; as, This is what I expected; that is, the thing which I expected. What farther regards the construction of relative pronouns, will be explained when we come to speak of the construction of verbs.

2. What is the construction of demonstrative and

distributive pronouns?

A. Demonstrative and distributive pronouns are real adjectives, and the manner of construing them we have shewn in speaking of the construction of adjectives.

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C H A P. III.

The CONSTRUCTION of VERBS and PARTICIPLES.

2. WHAT is the construction of Verbs?

A. A verb agrees with its nominative case, in number and person; as I write, thou art taught, the ship sails, we sing, &c.

2. How is the nominative case known?

A. By asking the question who or what? as, in the above examples, Who writes? I. Who is taught? Thou. What fails? The ship. Who sings? We. I, thou, the ship, we, therefore, are the nominative cases to the verbs write, are taught, fails, sing.

2. Where is the nominative case usually placed A. It is usually placed before the verb; I read, he

walks, we run, Sec.

2. Is it ever placed after the verb?

A. It is fometimes placed after the verb, and fometimes between the verb and the auxiliary.

2. When is it fo placed?

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A. 1. When a question is asked; as, Say you so? Did Cæsar conquer the Gauls? 2. When a command is given, or a wish expressed; as Go, thou trisser; Long live the King! May you be happy. 3. When a supposition is made without the conjunction if; as, Were I as rich as you, I would certainly assist him; Had I known it, I would have told you. 4. When a neuter verb is used: as, In this house lived your great grandsather; said I; said he. And, 5. When the neuter or passive verb is preceded by the adverbs here, there, then, thence, hence, thus, &c. as, Here have I been this hour and upwards; There were more men than women; Then cometh the end; Thence slow all the calamities of this life; Hence proceeds his anger; Thus was sulfilled the prophecy.

2. If two or more substantives singular, joined together by a conjunction, be the nominative to a verb,

in what number must the verb be put?

A. In the plural number: as, my father and mother are at home; my brother, fifter, and cousin, are gone to school.

When a noun implying number, or a multitude, is the nominative to the verb, in what number

must > verb be?

A. It may be either in the fingular or plural number: as, The army is well disciplined; The people are highly distantisfied.

2. May not the relative be the nominative to the

verb?

A. Yes, if no other nominative comes between them: as The master who taught me.

2. But if a nominative comes between the relative

and the verb, in what case must the relative be?

A. In that case which the verb governs, that is, in the oblique case; as The man whom I saw; The woman whom I met.

2. May not a verb in the infinitive mood, or the

clause of a sentence, be the nominative to a verb?

A. Yes:

A. Yes: as, To play is pleafant, but to fludy is more prudent; To rife early, and go to bed betimes, is good for the health.

2. May not one verb govern another in the infi-

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nitive mood?

A. It may: as, I love to ride; He choofes to walk.

.2. May not an adjective likewife govern a verb in the infinitive mood?

A. Yes: as, Fit to command; ready to obey.

2. What case comes after neuter or passive verbs?

A. The nominative case: as, It was I, and not he, that did it; I am he that liveth, and was dead. Addison is esteemed an elegant writer.

2. Does not the oblique case sometimes come after

these verbs?

A. It does frequently, but not very grammatically; as, Who is there? It is me.

2. What case comes after active or transitive verbs?

A. The oblique case only: as, You will oblige me; he loves her; she esteems him; he praised us; he blumed them.

2. What is the construction of Participles?

A. Participles are formetimes confidered as adjectives, and then they are construed as such; as, a learned man, a charming woman.

2. How are they conftrued, when they are not con-

fidered as adjectives?

A. The participle present, with the verb To be, supplies the place of the active verb through all its moods and tenses; and when it comes from a transitive verb, it takes the oblique case after it: as, He is bearing me; He was teaching her; He has been praising him; He had been blaming us.

2. How is the participle perfect or past construed,

when it is not confidered as an adjective?

A. The participle perfect or pait, with the verb To be, forms the passive voice; as, I am loved, I was loved, I have been loved, &c.

2. Is not the participle prefent fornetimes changed

into a fubstantive noun?

A: It is, and then it has the article before it, and the prepolition of after it: as, These are the precepts of religion,

religion, by the observing of which, you may be happy in this life, and in that which is to come.

C H A P. IV.

The CONSTRUCTION of ADVERBS, PREPOSITIONS, INTERJECTIONS, and CONJUNCTIONS.

2. WHAT is the construction of Adverbs?

A. Adverbs have no concord nor regimen, that is, they neither agree with, nor govern any other words. The only point to be determined with regard to their construction is, in what part of a fentence they ought to be placed.

2. In what part of a fentence, then, ought adverbs

to be placed?

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A. They ought to be placed near those words to which they relate.

2. Can you give no particular rule?

A. They are generally placed, 1. Before adjectives: as, He is a very good scholar; He is a very honest man.

2. After neuter verbs: as, He walks slowly; He runs swiftly.

3. After the oblique case following an active verb: as, He punished him severely; He praised her highly.

4. Between the auxiliary and the verb: as I was tenderly educated; I was carefully instructed.

2. What is the construction of Prepositions?

A. Prepositions take the oblique case after them; as, of me; to him; with her; from us; by them.

2. In what part of a fencence is the preposition

placed?

A. It is placed before the oblique case, as in the above examples.

2. Is it always fo placed?

A. No; when it governs the relative, it is fometimes placed differently.

2. Where is it then placed?

A. The relative is always placed before the verb; the prepofition is fometimes placed after it: as, That

is the man whom I spoke to yesterday; This is the boy whom I talked with. We have now taken notice of those great evils which you are come to rescue us from. Addison.

2. Are not the prepositions to and for sometimes

omitted?

A. Yes: as, reach me a pen, i. e. to me; buy me a book, i. e. for me; give every man his due, i. e. to every man.

2. Is not the preposition in, on, or during, likewise

omitted before some nouns?

A. Yes, before nouns expressing time: as, last evening; this morning; next week: that is, on last evening; on this morning; in or during next week.

2. What is the construction of Interjections?

A. As Interjections are only certain particles, or little indeclinable words, that are thrown in between the different parts of a fentence, they have not properly any conftruction; that is, they neither agree with, nor govern any other words.

2. What is the construction of Conjunctions?

A. Conjunctions couple like cases together: as, he and I will dine at home. Here the conjunction and couples he and I together in the nominative case. We must not say, he and me will dine at home. He taught him and her to write. Here the conjunction and couples him and her together in the oblique case. We must not say, He taught him and she to write.

2. Have you any thing else to observe with regard to

the construction of conjunctions?

A. The conditional or hypothetical conjunctions, if, though, unless, except, whether, &c. take the subjunctive mood after them, when the sense is doubtful or uncertain: as, If there be any thing, which makes human nature appear ridiculous—it is pride. Guardian. If it be true, that those persons are the happiest, who have the sewest wants. The World. Though he live a thousand years. Ecclesiastes. Except the Lord build the house, they labour in vain that build it. Psalms. Whether it were possible, that a man should be weary of a fortunate and healthy course of life? Guardian.

2. What mood do these conjunctions take after them,

when the fente is fixed and determined?

A. The indicative mood: as Though the danger of disappointment is always in proportion to the height of expectation. Adventurer.

2. Do not these conjunctions sometime take the indicative mood after them, even when the sense is

doubtful or uncertain?

A. They sometimes take either the indicative or subjunctive mood indifferently, and sometimes even in the same sentence: as, If pain comes into a heart, he is quickly followed by pleasure; and if pleasure enter, you may be sure pain is not far off. Spectator.

2. Is not the conjunction That fometimes under-

derstood?

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A. Yes: as, I beg you would speak to him, i. e. I beg that you would speak to him: Take care you do not forget it; i. e. Take care that you do not forget it.

2. Do the above observations contain all the rules of

fyntax!

A. They do: but there are many exceptions from these rules, some of which I have already noted, and others of them, I am told, are at present above my

comprehension.

2. You are right: many of these exceptions are at present above your comprehension. I shall therefore throw them together, in the form of remarks, to be consulted by you afterwards, when you arrive at greater maturity of judgment.



C H A P. V.

ADDITIONAL REMARKS,

For the use of those who have made some further progress in the study of Grammar.

Of the ARTICLE.

The article a is fometimes put for every: as, A man worth five hundred a year, i. e. every year. The article the is fometimes joined to adverbs in the comparative

comparative and superlative degree: as, The more I know your brother, the more I esteem him. I like this the most of any.

Of SUBSTANTIVES.

Some substantives in the singular number seem to be used in the plural: as, Twenty pound, thirty stone, sifty head of cattle, these kind of things. On the contrary, some substantives in the plural number seem to be used in the singular; as this news, this means.

Of ADJECTIVES.

Some Adjectives (see page 63.) are used as adverbs; as extreme cold, excessive hot, exceeding kind. The adjective enough seems to have a plural number; as, There are books enow.

Of PRONOUNS.

The Pronoun ye, which is in the nominative case, is sometimes used for you in the oblique case; as,

Vain pomp and glory of this world, I hate ye: Shakespear.

On the other hand, Himfelf and themselves, which are in the oblique case, are sometimes used in the nominative: as, He did it himself; They themselves ordered it. These seem to have come in place of his self and

their felves, which were formerly in ufe. .

Which is sometimes used for who: as, Our father, which art in heaven; instead of, Our father, who art in heaven. Which, however, is tometimes applied to persons; as, which of the men, or women, do you mean? That is some which is for who or which: as, This is the man whom I saw. The work that I bought; instead of, This is the book who I lought.

The relative is often emitted: as, That is the woman I spoke in; into id is, That is the woman whom I spoke to. This is the letter I wrote; instead of, This is the letter which (or that) I wrote. The antecedent to the

relative is fometimes omitted: as,

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Who sprung from kings shall know less joy than I. Pope.

That is, He or they who fprung from kings, &c.

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Of VERBS and PARTICIPLES.

It was faid above, that when a nominative comes between the relative and the verb, the relative must be put in the oblique case, but this rule is not always observed: the relative is sometimes put in the nominative case: as, Who did you see? Instead of, Whom did you see? Who did you find at home? Instead of, Whom did you find at home?

When a verb has two or more substantives singular for its nominative, it is not always put in the plural number, but it is sometimes put in the singular, and agrees with the substantive that is next to it, as Sand, and salt, and a mass of iron, is easier to bear than a mon without understanding. Ecclesiasticus.

The infinitive mood is sometimes used independently of the rest of the sentence, and has the same meaning as the subjunctive mood with the conjunctive that: 28, To tell you the truth, I never inquired; that is, That I may tell, &c.

The active participle is sometimes used in a passive sense: as,

I'll teach you all what's owing to your Queen.
Dryden.

On the contrary, the passive participle is sometimes used in an active sense: as, I am mistaken; that is, I am mistaking, or I mistake. In a sew passive participles the final d is sometimes dropped: as The house is situate on a rising ground; that is, situated.

A substantive and a participle may be joined together without any dependence upon the rest of the sentence. This is termed the absolute case, and is equivalent to what, in Latin, is called the absolute absolute: as, Now when all the people were baptized, it came to pass, that, Jesus also being baptized and praying, the heavens were opened, Luke iii. 21.

Of ADVERBS, PREPOSITIONS, INTER-JECTIONS, and CONJUNCTIONS.

Adverbs ought to be placed next to the words, which they are intended to qualify or affect: as, if I meant to fay, that I faw nobody but your brother, I should place the words thus: I faw only your brother. But if I meant to fay, that I faw your brother, without speaking to him, I should place them thus: I only faw your brother.

Two negatives make a positive, or an affirmative: as

Nor did they not perceive the evil plight

In which they were, or their fierce pains not feel.

Milton.

That is, they did perceive, and did feel. Nor never, therefore, feems to be an improper expression, when we mean to deny; nor ever is much better, and less

equivocal.

The adverb where frequently supplies the place of the relative which, and the preposition in: as, The chief object of Essex's ambition was to return to the station of Lord Lieutenant, where he had behaved with honour and integrity. Hume's History. That is, in which he had behaved, &c. The convention annexed to this settlement of the crown, a declaration of rights, where all the points, which had, of late years, been disputed between king and people, were finally determined. Ibid. That is, in which all the points, &c.

A Preposition does not always govern the oblique case: as, Who is this for? Instead of, Whom is this for? Who did you give it to? Instead of, Whom did

you give it to?

Some interjections take the oblique case after them: as Ah me! Wo is me! O well is thee! Psalm exxviii. 2. Well is him, that dwelleth with a wife of understanding. Well is him that bath found prudence. Ecclesiasticus xxv. 8, 9.

The conjunction than governs the relative who in

the oblique case, as,

The king of dykes! than whom no fluice of mud,
With deeper fable, blots the filver flood.
Pope's Dunciad.

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It also couples like cases: as, Thou art older than I; i. e. than I am. Here than couples Thou and I in the nominative case. You think him better than me; i. e. than you think me. Here than couples him and me in the oblique case. Sometimes, however, it governs personal pronouns in the oblique case: as He is younger than her. Here than governs her in the oblique case.

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C H A P. VI.

Of GRAMMATICAL FIGURES.

2. Is there any thing else necessary for understanding the rules of Syntax?

A. It is necessary for this purpose to understand gram-

matical Figures.

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Q. How many kinds of grammatical figures are there?

A. Two; such as affect letters or syllables, and such as affect words.

2. What are the grammatical figures that affect

letters or fyllables?

A. The Apharesis, the Syncope, and the Apocope.

2. What do mean by an Aphæresis?

A. An Aphæresis is, when a letter or syllable is omitted at the beginning of a word: as 'tis, for it is; 'twas, for it was; 'twere, for it were.

2. What do you mean by a Syncope?

A. A Syncope is when a letter or syllable is left out in the middle of a word; as e'er for ever; ne'er for never; wou'd for would.

?. What do you mean by a Apocope?

A. An Apocope is when a letter or fyllable is cut off from the end of a word: as tho, for though; thro, for through.

2. What are the grammatical figures that affect

words?

A. There is only one grammatical figure that affects words, and it is called an Ellipfis.

2. What do you mean by an Ellipsis?

A. An

A. An Ellipsis is when a word is left out, that is necessary to make the construction complete: as, I beg you would come, for I beg that you would come; I rose at sive, for I rose at five o'clock, or rather at five of the clock.

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C H A P. VII.

SYNTAX EXEMPLIFIED.

2: WHAT is the best method of understanding

A. The best method seems to be to study the rules-

that are laid down above.

2. Is there no other method?.

A. Yes; we should endeavour to understand the construction of every part of speech we meet with in reading, which will improve us not only in syntax, but etymology.

9. Will it not be proper to give some examples for

this purpose?

A. It will; and I shall subjoin here

A few EXAMPLES of GRAMMATICAL CONSTRUCTION, in which the parts of speech are carefully explained.

EXAMPLE I.

The Apostles Creed.

I believe in God, the Father almighty, maker of

heaven and earth.

I is a personal pronoun, first person, singular number. Believe, an active verb, indicative mood, present tense, sirst person singular, agreeing with its nominative I. In a preposition. God a substantive noun, singular number, oblique case, governed by in. The, the definite article. Father, a substantive noun, singular number, oblique case, agreeing with God. Almighty, a compound adjective, made up of all and mighty,

mighty, agreeing with Father. Maker, a substantive noun, singular number, oblique case, agreeing with God or Father. Of, a preposition. Heaven, a substantive noun, singular number, oblique case, governed by of. And, a conjunction. Earth, a substantive noun, singular number, oblique case, and coupled to heaven by the conjunction and.

And in Jefus Chrift, his only Son our Lord.

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And, as before. In, as before. Jesus, a proper sub-stantive noun, or proper name, in the oblique case, governed by the preposition in. Christ, the same, agreeing with Jesus. His, a possessive pronoun, third person singular, masculine gender, agreeing with Son. Only, an adjective: it is trequently an adverb. Son, a substantive noun, singular number, oblique case, agreeing with Jesus. Our, a possessive pronoun, first person plural, oblique case, agreeing with Lord. Lord, a substantive noun, singular number, oblique case, agreeing with Jesus Christ and Son.

Who was conceived by the Holy Ghoft, born of the Virgin Mary, suffered under Pontius Pilate, was crucified, dead and buried.

Who, a relative pronoun, in the third person fingular, agreeing with the antecedent Lord, and ferving as a nominative to the verb was conceived, as there is no nominative between them. Was conceived, a passive verb, indicative mood, preter-imperfect tenfe, third person singular, agreeing with its nominative who. By, a preposition. The, as before. Holy, an adjective. Ghoft, a substantive, singular number, oblique case, governed by the preposition by. Born, the participle passive of the irregular verb to bear. Of, as before. The, as before. Virgin, a substantive noun, singular number, oblique case, governed by of. Mary, the tame, or a proper name, agreeing with Virgin. Suffered, a neuter verb, indicative mood, preter-imperfect tente, third person singular, agreeing with its nominative who; for who is the nominative to all the verbs in this lentence. Under, a preposition. Pontius Pilate, proper substantive nouns, or proper names, in the oblique case, governed by under. Was crucified, a passive verb, indicative mood, preter-impersect tense, third person singular, agreeing with its nominative who. Dead, an adjective. And, as before. Buried, the participle passive of the verb to bury.

He descended into hell: the third day he rose again from the dead.

He, a personal pronoun, third person singular, masculine gender, nominative cafe, supplying the place of Jesus. Descended, a neuter verb, indicative mood, preter-imperfect tenfe, third perfon fingular, agreeing with its nominative be. Into, a preposition. Hell, a fubstantive noun, singular number, oblique case, governed by into. The, as before. Third, an adjective, and an ordinal number, as three is a cardinal number. Day, a substantive. The third day answers to the queftion when: as, when did he rife? The third day, i. e. in or on the third day. The preposition in or on, therefore, feems to be understood. He, as before. Roje, a neuter irregular verb, indicative mood, preter-imperfect tenfe, third person singular, agreeing with its nominative he. Again, an adverb of time. From, a preposition. The, as before. Dead, an adjective: the substantive, persons, is understood.

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He ascended into heaven; and sitteth at the right hand of God the Father almighty: from thence he shall come to judge the quick and the dead.

He, as before. Ascended, a neuter verb, indicative mood, preter-impersect tense, third person singular, agreeing with its nominative be. Into, as before. Heaven, as before, governed by into. And, as before. Sitteth, a neuter verb, indicative mood, present tense, third person singular. On, a preposition. The, as before. Right, an adjective. Hand, a substantive, singular number, oblique case, governed by the preposition on. Of, as before. God, as before, governed by of. The Father stanighty, as before. From, as before. Thence, an adverb of place. He, as before. Shall come, a neuter verb, indicative mood, suture-impersect tense, third person singular, agreeing with its nominative be.

To judge, an active verb, infinitive mood, present tense. The, as before. Quick, an adjective: the word men or persons, is understood. And, as before. The Dead, as before.

I believe in the holy ghost; the holy catholic church; the communion of faints; the forgiveness of fins; the resurrection of the body; and the life everlasting. Amen

I believe in the holy ghost, as before. The holy, as before. Catholic, an adjective. Church, a substantive noun, fingular number, oblique case, governed by the preposition in. The, as before. Communion, a substantive noun, fingular number, oblique case, governed by the preposition in. Of, as before. Saints, a substantive noun, plural number, oblique case, governed by the prepolition of. The, as before. Forgiveness, a fubstantive noun, fingular number, oblique case, governed by the prepolition in. Of, as before. Sins, a fubflantive noun, plural number, oblique case, governed by the preposition of. The, as before. Resurrection, a substantive noun, singular number, oblique case, governed by the prepofition in. Of the, as before. Body, a substantive noun, singular number, oblique case, governed by of. And the, as before. Life, a substantive noun, fingular number, oblique case, governed by the preposition in. Everlasting, an adjective, compounded of the adverb ever, and the participle lasting, and agreeing with the fubitantive Life. Amen, a word fignifying so be it! or so it is. It is originally Hebrew, but is used in most languages.

EXAMPLE II.

Part of the Tenth Chapter of the Proverbs of Solomon.

1. The Proverbs of Solomon. A wife fon maketh a glad father; but a foolish fon is the heaviness of his mother.

The, the definite article. Proverbs, a substantive noun, plural number, nominative case. Of, a preposition. Solomon, a proper substantive noun, or proper name, singular number, oblique case, governed by the preposition of; or of Solomon may be considered as the genitive case, governed by the preceding substantive Proverbs. A, the indefinite article. Wise, an adjective roverbs.

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tive. Son, a substantive, singular number, nominative case. Maketh, an active verb, indicative mood, present tense, third person singular, agreeing with its nominative Son. A, as before. Glad, an adjective. Father, a substantive noun, singular number, oblique case, governed by the verb maketh. But, a conjunction disjunctive. A, as before. Foolish, an adjective. Son, as before. Is, the irregular neuter verb to be, indicative mood, present tense, third person singular, agreeing with its nominative son. The, as before. Heaviness, a substantive noun, singular number, nominative case, following the verb is. Of, as before. His, a possession pronoun, third person singular, masculine gender. Mother, a substantive noun, singular number, oblique case, governed by the preposition of.

2. Treasures of wickedness profit nothing: but righteousness delivereth from death.

Treasures, a substantive noun, plural number, nominative case. Of, as before. Wickedness, a substantive noun, singular number, oblique case, governed by of. Prosit, an active verb, indicative mood, present tense, third person plural, agreeing with its nominative treasures. Nothing, a word compounded of the adverb no, and the substantive thing: it is here used as an adverb, but is more commonly a substantive. But, as before. Righteousness, a substantive noun, singular number, nominative case. Delivereth, an active verb, indicative mood, present tense, third person singular, agreeing with its nominative righteousness. From, a preposition. Death, a substantive noun, singular number, oblique case, governed by the preposition from.

3. The Lord will not suffer the soul of the righteous to famish, but he casteth away the substance of the wicked.

The, as before. Lord, a fubstantive noun, singular number, nominative case. Will suffer, an active verb, indicative mood, suture imperfect tense, third person singular, formed by the auxiliary will, and the principal verb suffer, and agreeing with its nominative Lord. Not, an adverb, placed between the auxiliary

an

and the verb, according to the rule given before. The, as before. Soul, a fubitantive noun, fingular number, oblique case, governed by the active verb suffer. Of the, as before. Righteous, an adjective: the word perfon, or perfons, is understood, and omitted by an ellipfis. To family, a neuter verb, infinitive mood, present tense: this verb is more commonly active. But, as before. He, a personal pronoun, masculine gender, fingular number, third perfon, nominative cafe. Cafteth, an active verb, indicative mood, prefent tenfe, third perfon fingular, agreeing with its nominative be. Away, an adverb. The, as before. Substance, a substantive noun, fingular number, oblique case, governed by the verb casteth. Of the, as before. Wicked, an adjective: the word person, or persons, is understood, and omitted by an elliplis.

4. He becometh poor that dealeth with a flack hand: but the hand of the diligent maketh rich.

He, as before. Becometh, a neuter verb, indicative mood, prefent tense, third person singular, agreeing with its nominative be: this verb is fometimes active. Poor, an adjective, agreeing with the pronoun be. That, is here used as a relative pronoun, for who, and agrees with its antecedent, he, in the third person fingular. Dealeth, a neuter verb, indicative mood, prefent tenfe, third person singular, agreeing with its nominative that: this verb is fometimes active. With, a preposition. A, as before. Slack, an adjective. Hand, a substantive, singular number, oblique case, governed by the preposition with. But the, as before. Hand, a substantive noun, singular number, nominative case. Of the, as before. Diligent, an adjective: the word man, or person, is understood. Maketh, as before, agreeing with its nominative hand. Rich, an adjective.

5. He that gathereth in fummer is a wife fon: but he that fleepeth in harvest, is a fon that causeth shame.

He, as before. That, as before. Gathereth, an active verb, indicative mood, present tense, third person singular, agreeing with the relative that, as its nominative.

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tive iary and native. In, a preposition. Summer, a substantive noun, singular number, oblique case, governed by the preposition in. Is, as before. A wise son, as before. But he that, as before. Sleepeth, a neuter verb, indicative mood, present tense; third person singular, agreeing with the relative that, as its nominative. In, as before. Harvest, a substantive noun, singular number, oblique case, governed by the preposition in. Is a son, as before. That, as before. Causeth, an active verb, indicative mood, present tense, third person singular, agreeing with the relative that, as its nominative. Shame, a substantive noun, singular number, oblique case, governed by the verb causeth.

6. Bleffings are upon the head of the just: but violence covereth the mouth of the wicked.

Blessians, a substantive noun, plural number, nominative case. Are, the irregular neuter verb to be, indicative mood, present tense, third person plural, agreeing with its nominative Blessians. Upon, a preposition. The, as before. Head, a substantive noun, singular number, oblique case, governed by the preposition upon. The, as before. Just, an adjective: the word person, or persons, is understood. But, as before. Violence, a substantive noun, singular number, nominative case. Covereth, an active verb, indicative mood, present tense, third person singular, agreeing with its nominative Violence. The, as before. Mouth, a substantive noun, singular number, oblique case, governed by the verb covereth. Of the wicked, as before.

EXAMPLE III.

The Occonomy of Human Life: Part IV. Section III.

From the creatures of God let man learn wisdom, and apply to himself the instruction they give.

From, a preposition. The, the definite article. Creatures, a substantive noun, plural number, oblique case, governed by the preposition from. Of, a preposition. God, a substantive noun, singular number, oblique case, governed by the preposition of. Let, an impersect verb, used in forming the imperative

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Man, a fubstantive noun, fingular number, oblique case, governed by the verb let. Learn, or rather Let man learn, an active verb, imperative mood, third person singular. Wisdom, a substantive noun, fingular number, oblique cafe, governed by the verb learn. And, a conjunction. Apply, an active verb, imperative mood, third person singular: the words let man, or let him, are understood, but omitted by an ellipsis. To, a preposition. Himself, the personal pronoun him, with felf added to it, third person fingular, masculine gender, oblique case, governed by the preposition to. The, as before. Instruction, a subftantive noun, fingular number, oblique case, governed by the verb apply. They, a personal pronoun, neuter gender, third person plural, nominative case: it supplies the place of Creatures. Give, an active verb, indicative mood, prefent tenfe, third person plural, agreeing with its nominative they. The relative which is omitted, by an etlipsis, between the words instruction and they: for the fentence, if complete, would run thus; the instruction which they give.

Go to the defart, my fon, observe the young stork of the wilderness, let him speak to thy heart; he beareth on his wings his aged sire, he lodgeth him in safety, and supplieth him with food.

Go, a neuter verb, imperative mood, fecond person fingular: the nominative Thou is omitted by an ellipsis. To, as before. The, as before. Defart, a substantive noun, fingular number, oblique case, governed by the preposition to: it is sometimes an adjective. My, a possessive pronoun, first person singular. Son, a subflantive noun, fingular number, nominative cafe, which is here the tame with what the Latins call the vocative case, that is, the case of calling to, or addreffing. Observe, an active verb, imperative mood, fecond person singular: the nominative thou is understood. The, as before. Young, an adjective. Stork, a fubstantive noun, fingular number, oblique case, governed by the verb observe. Of, as before. The, as before. Wilderness, a substantive noun, singular num ber, oblique case, governed by the preposition of. Le

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before. Him, a personal pronoun, third person ingular, masculine gender, oblique case, governed by the verb let. Speak, or rather, let him speak, a neuter Verb, imperative mood, third person singular: this verh is fometimes active. To, as before. Thy, a posich e pronoun, fecond person singular. Heart, a substantive noun, tingular number, oblique case, governed by the proposition to. H, a personal pronoun, third perfor Engular, masculine gender, nominative case, ingulving the place of the young Stork. Beareth, an active verb, indicative mood, present tense, third perfor ingular, agreeing with its nominative be. On, a proposition. His, a possessive pronoun, third person tingular, masculine gender. Wings, a substantive noun, plural number, oblique case, governed by the proposition on. His, as before. Aged, an adjective. Sire, a fubitantive, fingular number, oblique case, governed by the verb beareth. He, as before. Lodgeth, an active verb, indicative mood, prefent tenfe, third person singular, agreeing with its nominative he. Him, as before, governed by the verb lodgeth. In, a preposition. Safety, a substantive noun, singular number, oblique case, governed by in. And, as before. Supplieth, an active verb, indicative mood, present tense, third person singular, agreeing with its nominative he, which is understood. Him, as before, governed by the verb supplieth. With, a preposition. Food, a substantive noun, fingular number, oblique case, governed by with.

The piety of a child is fweeter than the incense of Perfia offered to the fun: yea, more delicious than odours wafted from a field of Arabian spices, by the

weltern gales.

The, as before. Piety, a substantive noun, singular number, nominative case. Of, as before. A, the indefinite article. Child, a substantive noun, fingular number, oblique case, governed by the preposition of. Is, the irregular neuter verb To be, indicative mood, present tense, third person singular, agreeing with its nominative piety. Sweeter, an adjective, in the comparative degree. Than, a conjunction disjunctive. The, as before. Incense, a substantive noun, singular number,

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number, nominative case, coupled with picty, by the conjunction than. Of, as before. Perfia, a proper substantive noun, or the proper name of a country, fingular number, oblique case, governed by the prepofition of: like most proper names, it has no plural. Offered, the participle passive of the verb to offer. To the, as before. Sun, a substantive noun, fingular number, oblique case, governed by the preposition to. Yea, an adverb. More delicious, an adjective in the comparative degree. It is compared thus; delicious, more delicious, most delicious. Adjectives of two or more fyllables are commonly compared in this manner, not by er and eft. See page 22. Than, as before. Odours, a substantive noun, plural number, nominative case, coupled with piety by the conjunction than. Wafted, the participle passive of the verb to wast. From a, as before. Field, a substantive noun, singular number, oblique case, governed by the preposition from. Of, as before. Arabian, an adjective. Spices, a substantive, plural number, oblique case, governed by the preposition of. By, a preposition. The, as before. Western, an adjective. Gales, a substantive, plural number, oblique case, governed by the preposition by.

Be grateful then to thy father, for he gave thee life;

and to thy mother, for the fuitained thee.

Be, the irregular neuter verb to be, imperative mood, fecond person singular: the nominative, thou, is understood, and omitted by an ellipsis. Grateful, an adjective. Then, an adverb. To thy, as before. Father, a substantive noun, fingular number, oblique case, governed by the preposition to. For, a conjunction causal, or one that implies a cause. He, as before. Gave, an irregular active verb, indicative mood, preter-imperfect tense, third person singular, agreeing with its nominative he. Thee, a personal pronoun, fecond person singular, oblique case, governed by the preposition to understood: see page 90. The fentence, if complete, and in its natural order, would run thus, He gave life to thee. Life, a fubstantive noun, fingular number, oblique case, governed by the verb gave. And to thy, as before. Mother, a substantive noun, singular number, oblique case, go-F 5 verned verned by the preposition to. For, as before. She, a personal pronoun, third person singular, seminine gender, nominative case, supplying the place of Mother. Sustained, an active verb, indicative mood, preterimpersect tense, third person singular, agreeing with its nominative She. Thee, as before, governed by the verb sustained.

Hear the words of his mouth, for they are spoken for thy good: give ear to his admonition, for it pro-

ceedeth from love.

Hear, an active verb, imperative mood, fecond perfon fingular: the nominative, thou, is understood. The, as before. Words, a substantive noun, plural number, oblique case, governed by the verb hear. Of his, as before. Mouth, a substantive noun, singular number, oblique case, governed by of. For, as before. They, as before, supplying the place of words. Are spoken, an irregular passive verb, indicative mood, prefent tenfe, third perfon plural, agreeing with its nominative they. For, a preposition: it is sometimes a conjunction, as above. Thy, as before. Good, a substantive, or rather an adjective used as a substantive, fingular number, oblique case, governed by the preposition for. Give, an active verb, imperative mood, fecond perion fingular: the nominative, thou, is understood. Ear, a substantive noun, singular number, oblique case, governed by the verb give. To his, as before. Admonition, a substantive noun, singular number, oblique case, governed by the preposition to. For, a conjunction, as before. It, a personal pronoun, third person singular, neuter gender, nominative case, supplying the place of admonition. Proceedeth, a neuter verb, indicative mood, present tense, third person fingular, agreeing with its nominative it. From, as before. Love, a substantive noun, singular number, oblique case, governed by the preposition from.

He hath watched for thy welfare, he hath toiled for thy eafe; do honour therefore to his age, and let not

his grey hairs be treated with irreverence.

He, as before. Hath watched, an active verb, indicative mood, preter-perfect tenfe, third perfon fingular, agreeing with its nominative he. For, a preposition.

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polition. Thy, as before. Welfare, a substantive noun, compounded of well and fare, lingular number, oblique case, governed by the preposition for. He, as before. Hath toiled, a neuter verb, indicative mood, preterperfect tente, third perion fingular, agreeing with its nominative be. For, a preposition. Thy, as before. Eafe, a fubitantive noun, fingular number, oblique cale, governed by the prepolition for. Do, an irregular active verb, imperative mood, fecond person fingular: the nominative, thou, is understood. Honour, a substantive noun, singular number, oblique case, governed by the verb do. Therefore, an adverb, or a conjunction implying an inference. To his, as before. Age, a substantive noun, singular number, oblique case, governed by the preposition to. And, as before. Let, as before. Not, an adverb. His, as before. Grey, an adjective. Hairs, a substantive noun, plural number, oblique case, governed by the verb let. Be, an irregular neuter verb, imperative mood, third person plural. Treated, the participle passive of the verb to treat. Or more properly, Let his grey hairs be treated, is a passive verb, imperative mood, third person plural: for the verb To be treated, in this mood, number, and person, is regularly, Let them be treated; and the words, grey bairs, or any other words in the plural number, may supply the place of them. With, as before. Irreverence, a substantive noun, compounded of in (the n being changed into r, fee page 70.) and reverence, fingular number, oblique cale, governed by the prepolition with.

Forget not thy helpless infancy, nor the frowardness of thy youth, and include the infirmities of thy aged parents; affift and support them in the decline of life.

Forget, an active verb, compounded of for and get, imperative mood, second person singular: the nominative, thou, is understood. Not thy, as before. Helpless, an adjective. Insancy, a substantive, singular number, oblique case, governed by the verb forget. Nor, a conjunction disjunctive. The, as before. Frowardness, a substantive noun, singular number, oblique case, coupled with insancy by the conjunction nor. Of thy, as before. Youth, a substantive noun, singular number,

number, oblique case, governed by the preposition of. And, as before. Indulge, an active verb, imperative mood, fecond person singular: the nominative, thou, is understood. The, as before. Infirmities, a substantive noun, plural number, oblique case, governed by the verb indulge. Of thy, as before. Aged, an adjective. Parents, a substantive noun, plural number, oblique case, governed by the preposition of. Assist, an active verb, imperative mood, second person fingular: the nominative, thou, is understood. And, as before. Support, an active verb, imperative mood, fecond person singular: the nominative, thou, is understood. Them, a personal pronoun, third person, plural number, both masculine and feminine gender (as supplying the place of parents) oblique case, governed by the verbs affift and support. In the, as before. Decline, a substantive noun, singular number, oblique case, governed by the preposition in. Of, as before. Life, as before, governed by the preposition of.

So shall their hoary heads go down to the grave in peace; and thine own children, in reverence of thy

example, shall repay thy piety with filial love.

So, an adverb. Shall, an auxiliary verb, abfolute form, third person plural. Their, a possessive pronoun, third person plural, nominative case. Hoary, an adjective. Heads, a substantive noun, plural number, nominative case. Go, or rather shall go, a neuter verb, indicative mood, suture imperfect tense, third person plural, agreeing with its nominative heads, which, according to a rule formerly given (see page 87.) is here placed between the auxiliary and the verb. Down, an adverb. To the, as before. Grave, a substantive noun, fingular number, oblique case, governed by the preposition to. In, as before. Peace, a substantive noun, fingular number, oblique case, governed by the preposition in. And, as before. Thine, a pos-fessive pronoun, second person plural. Own, a word added to possessive pronouns, to render them more emphatic: see page 26. Children, a substantive noun, plural number, nominative case. In, as before. Reverence, a substantive noun, singular number, oblique case, governed by the preposition in. Of thy, as betore.

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fore. Example, a substantive noun, singular number, oblique case, governed by the preposition of. Shall repay, an active verb, indicative mood, suture imperfect tense, third person plural, agreeing with its nominative Children. Thy, as before. Piety, a substantive noun, singular number, oblique case, governed by the verb repay. With, as before. Filial, an adjective. Love, a substantive, singular number, oblique case, governed by the preposition with.

EXAMPLE IV.

Pope's Effay on Man. Epifle iv.

Honour and shame from no condition rise; Act well your part, there all the honour lies.

Honour, a substantive noun, singular number, nominative case. And, a conjunction. Shame, a substantive noun, fingular number, nominative case, coupled with Honour by the conjunction and. From, a preposition. No, an adjective: when it answers a question, it is an adverb. Condition, a substantive noun, fingular number, oblique case, governed by the preposition from. Rife, a neuter verb, indicative mood, present tense, third person plural; and it is put in the plural number, because it has two substantives singular, viz. honour and shame, for its nominative: see page 87. Act, an active verb, imperative mood, fecond person fingular: the nominative, thou, is understood. Well, an adverb. Your, a possessive pronoun, second person plural, but is here used as if it were fingular. Part, a fubitantive noun, fingular number, oblique cafe, governed by the verb act. There, an adverb: it here fignifies in that, in the fame manner as where frequently fignifies in which. All, an adjective. The, the definite article. Honour, as before. Lies, a neuter verb, indicative mood, present tense, third person singular, agreeing with its nominative honour.

Fortune in men has fome fmall diff'rence made, One flaunts in rags, one flutters in brocade; The cobler apron'd, and the parson gown'd, The friar hooded, and the monarch crown'd,

Fortune,

Fortune, a fubftantive noun, fingular number, nominative case. In, a prepolition. Men, a substantive noun, plural number, oblique cafe, governed by the preposition in. Has made, (for these words belong to each other, though separated by the words some small diff'rence) an active verb, indicative mood, preterperfect tenfe, third perfon fingular, agreeing with its nominative fortune. Some, an adjective. Small, an adjective. Diffrence, for difference by a Syncope, a fubitantive noun, fingular number, oblique case, governed by the verb has made. One, an adjective : the fubstantive man, or perjon, is understood. Flaunts, a neuter verb, indicative mood, present tense, third person singular, agreeing with its nominative one. In, as before. Rags, a substantive noun, plural number, oblique case, governed by the preposition in. One, as before. Flutters, a neuter verb, indicative mood, prefent tense, third person fingular, agreeing with its nominative one. In, as before. Brocade, a substantive noun, fingular number, oblique cafe, governed by the preposition in. The, as before. Cobler, a substantive noun, singular number, nominative case. Apron'd, for aproned by a Syncope, an adjective, or a participle passive, formed from the substantive apron. And the, as before. Parson, a substantive noun, fingular number, nominative case. Gown'd, for gowned by a Syncope, an adjective or a participle paffive, formed from the fubstantive gown. The, as before. Friar, a fubstantive noun, fingular number, nominative case. Horded, an adjective, or a participle passive, formed from the substantive bood. And the, as before. Monarch, a fubstantive noun, fingular number, nominative case. Crown'd, for crowned by a Syncope, an adjective, or a participle passive, formed from the subflantive Crown. The verb is feems to be understood between all these substantives and adjectives, or participles paffive: thus, The cobler is apron'd, &c.

What differ more (you cry) than crown and cowl!

I'll tell you, friend! a wife man and a fool.

What, a relative, or an interrogative pronoun, or rather an interrogative pronominal adjective: the word things is understood. Differ, a neuter verb, indicative mood,

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mood, prefent tenfe, third perfon plural, agreeing with its nominative what. More, an adverb, in the comparative degree. You, a perional pronoun, fecond perion plural, oblique case, but is here understood as in the nominative cale and fingular number, though joined with a plural verb: fee page 24. Cry, a neuter verb, indicative mood, prefent tenfe, fecond person plural, agreeing with its nominative You. Than, a conjunction difjunctive. Crown, a fubitantive noun, fingular number, nominative case. And, as before. Cowl, a substantive noun, fingular number, nominative case, coupled to Crown by the conjunction and. I'll, for I will by the figure Syncope. I, a personal pronoun, first person, fingular number, nominative case. Will tell, a neuter verb. indicative mood, future imperfect tense, first person fingular, agreeing with its nominative I: this verb is frequently active. You, a personal pronoun, second person, plural number, oblique case, governed by the preposition to understood; for the sentence, if complete, would run thus, I will tell to you. You likewise is here used for thee. Friend, a substantive noun, fingular number, nominative cafe, which is here equivalent to what the Latins call the vocative case, that is, the case of addressing or calling to. A, the indefinite article. Wife, an adjective. Man, a substantive noun, fingular number, nominative case. And, as before. A, as before. Fool, a substantive noun, fingular number, nominative case, coupled to man by the conjunction and.

You'll find, if once the monarch acts the monk,

Or, cobler-like, the parfon will be drunk,

Worth makes the man, and want of it the fellow;

The rest is all but leather and prunella.

You'll, for you will by a Syncope. You, as before, here used in the nominative case. Will find, an active verb, indicative mood, suture imperfect tense, second person plural, agreeing with its nominative you. If, a conditional or hypothetical conjunction, here joined with the verb acts in the indicative mood. Once, an adverb. The monarch, as before. Acts, an active verb, indicative mood, present tense, third person singular, agreeing with its nominative monarch. The, as before.

Monk, a substantive noun, singular number, oblique case, governed by the verb acts. Or, a conjunction disjunctive. Cabler-like, a compound adjective, made up of the substantive Cobler, and the adjective like. The parfin, as before. Will be, the neuter verb to be, indie tive mood, future imperfect tenfe, third perfon fingular, agreeing with its nominative parfon. Drunk, an adjective. Worth, a substantive noun, singular number, nominative case. That is understood before it: thus you'll find, if once, &c. that worth makes the man. Makes, an active verb, indicative mood, present tense, third person singular, agreeing with its nominative worth. The, as before. Man, a fulfantive noun, fingular number, oblique case, governed by the verb makes. And, as before. Want, a substantive noun, fingular number, nominative case, coupled with worth by the conjunction and. Of, a preposition. It, a personal pronoun, third person, neuter gender, fingular number, oblique case, governed by the prepofition of, and supplying the place of worth. The, as before. Fellow, a substantive noun, singular number, oblique case, governed by the verb makes, which is understood; for the sentence, if complete, would run thus, Worth makes the man, and want of it makes the fellow. The, as before. Reft, a substantive noun, fingular number, nominative case. Is, the neuter verb am or to be, indicative mood, present tense, third perfon fingular, agreeing with its nominative reft. All, as before. But, a conjunction disjunctive. Leather, a substantive noun, fingular number, nominative case, following the neuter verb is. And, as before. Prunella, a substantive noun, singular number, nominative case, coupled to Leather, by the conjunction and.

PART IV.

CHAP. I.

PROSODY.

2: WHAT is Profody?

A. Profody is that part of grammar, which teaches the true pronunciation of words, and the rules of Versification.

Q. Upon what does the true pronunciation of words

depend?

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A. The true pronunciation of words depends upon giving to every letter its proper found, and to every fyllable its proper quantity and accent.

Q. Has not the found of the several letters been

already explained?

A. It has in the first part of this grammar. See page 3, &c.

CHAP. II.

Of QUANTITY and ACCENT.

2. WHAT do you mean by the Quantity of a fyllable?

A. The Quantity of a fyllable is the time taken up in pronouncing it; and hence fyllables are divided into long and short.

2. What is the proportion of a long to a short

fyllable?

A. Two to one; that is, a long fyllable is twice as long

2. Are Quantity and Accent the fame?

A. Not exactly. Quantity, as has been just no

A. Not exactly. Quantity, as has been just now observed, is the length of time taken up in pronouncing a syllable; Accent, on the other hand, is the pronouncing

ing it with a higher or lower tone of voice. But though they be thus, in some measure, different, yet may they in general, especially in English poetry, be considered as the same.

Q. Can you give any rules for the accenting of

fyllables?

A. It must be observed, in the first place, that words confist of one, two, three, or more syllables.

2. How are words of one fyllable accented?

A. Most words of one syllable are either long or short, according to the nature of the verse, or the fancy of the poet. The article the is generally short.

2. How are words of two fyllables accented?

A. 1. Words of two syllables that are formed by adding a termination, are commonly accented on the first syllable; as whiteness, graceful, lover*.

2. Words of two fyllables that are formed by prefixing a fyllable, are commonly accented on the last;

as, to bestir, to beset, to prefer.

3. Some words of two fyllables are either nouns or verbs; and when that is the case, the noun has commonly the accent on the first syllable, the verb on the last; as

NOUNS.	VERBS.
A'bfent	to absent
An abstract	to abstráct
An accent	to accent
A cement	to cement
A collect	to collect
A conduct	to conduct
A conflict	to conflict
A concert	to concert
A confort	to confort
A contest	to contest
Acontract	to contráct
A convert	to convert
A defert	to desert
An extract	to extract
Fréquent	to frequent

This mark ' fet over a fyllable shews that it is accented.

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VERBS.

Incense	to incénse
An object	to object
A prefent	to prefent
Produce	to produce
A project	to project .
Arebel	to rebil
A récord	to record
A Jubject	to Subject
A torment	to torment
A transport	to transport

4. Many other words of two fyllables have the accent on the first; those, for instance, that end in y, as duty, navy; in or or our, as error, honour; in ow, as shadow, widow, except allow; in le, as cattle, rattle; in ish, as english, irish,; in ck, as musick, physick; in age, as cabbage, nonage; in en, as hasten, lessen; in er, as anker, hanker, scatter; in et, as packet, prophet.

5. Many words of two fyllables have the accent on the last, those, particularly, that end in a consonant and e final, as abide; provide, elope; or in two consonants, as commend, condemn; or have a diphthong in the last syllable, as bewail, conceal, array, applause; except some nouns in ain, as sountain, mountain, cuptain, curtain.

2. How are words of three fyllables accented?

A. 1. Words of three fyllables formed by adding a termination, or prefixing a fyllable, retain the accent of the primitive word, as beautiful, dutiful, liveliness, readiness, agreement, inconstant, unpleasant, unworthy.

2. Words of three fyllables ending in ous and al, accent the first fyllable, as glorious, marvellous, animal, sensual.

3. Words of three fyllables ending in ce, ent, and ate, accent the first fyllable, as maintenance, sustenance, reverence, arrogance, élegance, éloquence, ornament, assignt, testament, abdicate, dérogate, except they be derived from words having the accent on the last syllable, as designance, reliance, adherence, from desy, rely, adhere; or the middle syllable hath a vowel before two consonants, as intéstate.

4. Words

4. Words of three fyllables ending in y commonly accent the first syllable, as modesty, decency, family,

pi

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fortify, justify.

5. Words of three fyllables in re or le have the accent on the first tyllable, as théatre, audible, visible, pértable, except disciple, assemble, dissemble, resemble, and some others.

6. Words of three fyllables ending in ude commonly accent the first fyllable, as fortitude, grátitude, longitude,

latitude, turpitude.

- 7. Words of three fyllables ending in ator, have the accent on the middle fyllable, as spectator, testator. The case is the same if there be a diphthong in the middle syllable, as acknowledge, gentéely, obessance: or a vowel before two consonants, as abandon, abandance, eléctor.
- 8. Many words of three syllables are accented on the last: but these come chiefly from the French or Latin, as acquissce, ambuscade, gazetteer, importune, introduce, magazine, masquerade, condescend, comprehend, recollect, represent; or they are words formed by prefixing one or two syllables to an accented syllable, as misbecome, misbehave, superadd, supersine, undergo, understood, undertook.

2. How are Polyfyllables, or words of more than

three fyllables, accented?

A. 1. Polyfyllables, in general, retain the accent of the words from which they are derived, as competency, conquerable, délicacy, honourable, innúmerable, incomprebénfible.

2. Polyfyllables ending in ion have the accent on the last fyllable but two, or rather one, for ion is founded as one fyllable, as admirátion, indignátion, transportá-

tion, revolution.

3. Polyfyllables in ator have the accent on the last fyllable but one, as fabricator, operator, prevaricator.

4. Polyfyllables ending in ous have the accent on the last fyllable but two, as affiduous, ceremonious, litigious, parsimonious.

5. Some Polyfyllables feem to have two accents, as manimity; and fome three, as incorruptibility, incomprehenfibility:

prebenfibility: but words of this length can feldom, or never be admitted into verfe.

2. May the quantity or accent of all English words

be learned from the above rules?

A. No; nor is it possible to learn it from any rules. No rules can be given for this purpose, but what are subject to innumerable exceptions. The best way to learn it is, by reading the works of our most elegant Poets, where every word has, or ought to have, its proper quantity or accent.



H A P.

Of VERSIFICATION.

2. WHAT is Versification? A. Versification is the arrangement of the fyllables of words in fuch a manner as to produce that melody, which dittinguishes Verse from Prose.

2. How ought the fyllables of words to be arranged,

fo as to produce this melody?

A. It must first be observed, that two or three syllables, joined together in a certain manner, are called feet, which are diffinguished by the Greek names of lambics, Trochees, and Anapests.

2. What is an Iambic?

A. An Iambic confilts of two fyllables, the first short, the fecond long, as awake, arife, before, behind.

9. What is a Trochee?

A. A Trochec confifts of two fyllables, the first long, the second short, as gently, Softly, father, mother.

2. What is an Anapest?

A. An Anapest consists of three syllables, the two first short, the last long, as disapprive, incorrrect, interfere, supersede.

2. Which of these feet are most common in English

Verte?

A. The lambic and the Trochee.

2. How many kinds of Verse are there of the lambic measure?

A. Four, viz. Verses of four, fix, eight, and ten fyllables.

VERS'

VERSES OF FOUR SYLLABLES.

With rávifh'd eárs The monarch heárs.	D ryden,
What place is here! What feenes appear!	Addifon.
I fméil a fhréw, My féars are trúe, I fcé my wife.	ibid.
To mé the rose No longer glows.	ibid.
Thou árt in trúth, A fórward youth.	ibid.
The strains decay, And melt away.	Pape.

VERSES OF SIX SYLLABLES

The stars, with deep amaze, Stand fix'd in stedsast gaze, And will not take their slight, For all the morning light.	A.Tiliza.
Such music, as, 'tis said, Before was never made.	
Ring out ye cry'stal sphéres, Once bleis our húman ears.	inia.

VERSES OF EIGHT SYLLABLES. Which is the Meafure commonly used in short Poems.

From walk to walk, from shade to shade,	
From stream to purling stream convey'd,	
Through all the mazes of the grove,	**
Through all the mingling tracts I rove.	Addijan.
Forbéar these foólish fréaks, and sée	
Houseofr and King and Outon north	

How our good King and Quéen agrée. Why shou d not we their steps pursue, And dó as our fupériors dó? From náture toó I táke my rúle,

To shun contémpt and ridicule.

I never

ibid.

11

Gn.

I never with important air, In convertation overbear. Can grave and formal pals for wife, When men the folemn ow'l despite? My tongue within my lips I rein: Gar. For who talks much, must talk in vain. 'Tis, lét me fée, three years and more, October next it will be four, Since Harley bid me first attend, And choice me for a humble friend; Would take me in his coach to chat, And question me of this and that; As, " What's o'clock?" and " How's the worl? "Whose chariot's that we lest benead?" Or gravely try' to read the lines Writ underneath the country fig is;

VERSES OF TEN SYLLABLES,

" From Pope, from Parnel, or moun Ciay?"

Or, " Have you nothing new to-day

Which is the common measure of Epic Poetry and Tragedy. This kind of verse is used either with or without Rhime, whereas most other kinds of Verse are ised with Rhime only.

I saw young Harry, with his beaver on,
His cuisses on his thighs, gallantiy arm'd,
* Rise from the ground like feather'd Mercury',
And vaulted with such ease into his seat,
As if an angel dropt down from the clouds
To turn and wind a fiery Pégasus,
And witch the world with hoble horsemanship.

Shakespeare.

* A Trochee is fometimes used instead of an Iambic, as in this verse.

Then sing by turns, by turns the muses sing,
Now hawthorns blosson, now the daises spring,
Now leaves the trees, and flow'rs adorn the ground;
Begin, the vales shall ev'ry note rebound.

Pope.

Great

Great Cówley then, a mighty génius, wróte, O'er-run with wit, and lavish of his thought: His turns too clotely on the reader prefs; He more had pléas'd us, hád he pleas'd us less.

Addison.

Verses of this kind have sometimes two syllables added to them, and then they are called Alexandrines; but these are very seldom used, and only for the sake of variety, or in order to make the found an echo to the fense, as in the following example;

A néedlefs A'lexandrine ends the fong,

That like a wounded fnake, drags its flow length along.

2. How many kinds of verse have we of the Trochair meafure?

A. Three, viz. Verses of three, five, and seven fyllables.

VERSES OF THREE SYLLABLES.

I'n amáze Loft, I gáze: Can our ey'es Reach thy size? Máy my lay's Swell with praise, Wórthy me, Worthy thee. Glory strives, Fame revives. Rofy brakes, Sílver lákes. Dréadful gleams, Difmal fcreams. Fires that glow, Shrieks of woe.

Pope.

ibid.

Swift.

Addison.

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VERSES OF FIVE SYLLABLES.

I'n the days of old Stóries plainly told.

VERSES.

VERSES OF SEVEN SYLLABLES.

Nóble Lórd and Lády bríght, I' have bróught ye new delight; Hére behôld, fo goódly grówn, Thrée fair bránches óf your ówn.

Milton.

Hénce ye fécret dámps of cáre, Fiérce difdáin, and cóld defpáir, Hénce ye feárs and doúbts remóve!

Addifon.

Gód of tíme, if you be wife, Look not with your future eyés: What imports thy forward fight? Well if you could lose it quite.

Swift.

By' the stréams that éver flów, By' the frágrant winds that blów; By' the héro's ármed shádes, Glítt'ring through the gloómy gládes.

Pope.

Q. Which of these kinds of verse are most commonly used?

A. Those of seven, eight, and ten syllables.

2. Are they not sometimes used alternately in the

fame poem?

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ES.

A. Yes, and that too in a great variety of ways. The verses of fix and eight syllables are most frequently used in this manner, the long line going before the short.

To Lordlings proud I tune my lays,
Who feaft in bow'r or hall:
Though Dukes they be, to Dukes I fay

Though Dukes they be, to Dukes I fay, That pride will have a fall.

Swift.

Pope has the talent well to speak, But not to reach the ear; His loudest voice is low and weak, The Dean too deaf to hear.

ibid.

2. Give some examples of verse in the anapestic measure.

A. How unhappy is hé, That is ty'd to a she?

Addison.

G

Let

Let the loud trumpet found, Pope. 'Till the roofs all around. When the trées are all bare, not a léaf to be feen, And all nature difrob'd of her mantle of green, When the peafant, inactive, stands thiv'ring with cold, And the innocent flock runs for shelter to fold. 2. Is not a fyllable fometimes cut off from verses of this kind? A. Yes, the first syllable of the first foot, as Distracted with woe Addison. I'll rush on the foe. Thus fong could prevail Pope. O'er death and o'er hell. Come sit by my side while this picture I draw, In chátt'ring a mágpie, in príde a jackdáw. Swift. varied by 2. Are not these measures sometimes double endings? A. They are, as in verses Of three Syllables. E'ver bending. Néver énding. Addifon. Sweet delufion, Gay confusion. Of Six. He fung, and hell confented To héar the Poet's pray"r: Stern Proferpine relented, And gave him back the fair. Of Seven, O' the pleasing pleasing anguish, When we love, and when we languish! Addijon. Of Eight. Delány fénds a silver stándish, Swift. When I' no móre a pen can brandish. Quoth hé, my faith as ádamántine,

As chains of deftiny', I'll maintain.

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Hudibras.

Of Ten.

Either with or without rhime.

The piece, you think, is incorrect? why take it, I'm all submission, what you'd have it, make it.

Pope.

* Rénd with treméndous found your ears afunder, With gun, drum, trumpet, blunderbus and thunder.

* This line begins with a Trochee. ibi

Thus wé dispose of all poétic mérit, Your's Milton's génius, and mine Homer's spirit.

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ibid.

Farewell, a long farewell to all my greatnes!
This is the state of man; to-day he puts forth
The tender leaves of hope; to-morrow blossoms,
And bears his blushing honours thick upon him.

Shakespeare.

Verses of the anapestic measure are likewise varied by double endings:

And fám'd for his wit and his beauty.

Addison.

And Sir Trústy shall bé my Adónis.

ibid.

A conquest how hard and how glorious?

Though fate had fast bound her
With Sty'x nine times round her;
Yet music and love were victorious.

Pope.

Then we'll buy English silks for our wives and our daughters,

In spite of his Déanship and journeyman Waters.

My Sister transcrib'd it last night to his sorrow, And the public shall see't if I live till to-morrow.

ihid.

2. Are there not some contractions used in poetry, besides those you have mentioned in the chapter of grammatical figures?

A. Yes; not only in poetry, but even in profe, especially in dialogues, two, three, and sometimes four letters are lest out in certain words when joined together: as I've, you've, he's, we've, ye've, they've; for I have,

I have, you have, he has, we have, ye have, they have: I'll, you'll, he'll, we'll, ye'll, they'll; for I will, you will, he will, we will, ye will, they will: I'd, you'd, he'd, we'd, ye'd, they'd; for I would, you would, he would, we would, ye would, they would. In poetry e is frequently cut off from the, and o from to, when they come before words beginning with a vowel; as

Who first taught souls enflav'd, and realms undone, Th' enormous faith of many made for one; That proud exception to all nature's laws, T'invert the world, and counter-work its cause?

Pope.

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C H A P.

OF PUNCTUATION.

2. WHAT is Punctuation? A. Punctuation is the art of diffinguishing, by certain marks, the feveral stops or paufes in a

2. What are the principal marks made use of for

this purpose?

A. The Comma, the Semicolon, the Colon, and the

Period or Full Stop.

How are they expressed in writing? The comma is expressed The femicolon The colon The period or full ftop

2. How long should we stop at a Comma?

A. As long as we can count one.

2. How long should we stop at a Semicolon?

A. As long as we can count two.

2. How long should we stop at a Colon?

A. As long as we can count three.

2. How

Q. How long should we stop at a Period, or Full Stop?

2. What is the use of a Comma?

A. 1. It is used to distinguish the smaller parts of a compound sentence; as, "The conversation of most men is disagreeable, not so much for want of wit and learning, as of good breeding and discretion."

Spectator.

"A modest person seldom fails to gain the good-will of those he converses with, because nobody envies a man who does not appear to be pleased with himself."

ibid.

"Tis with our judgments, as our watches, none 'Go just alike, yet each believes his own." Pope.

2. When feveral fubstantives come together without a conjunction, they are separated by a Camma; as "Gold, silver, iv'ry, vases sculptur'd high, Paint, marble, gems, and robes of Persian dye, There are who have not—and, thank heav'n, there are, Who, if they have not, think not worth their care."

Pope.

3. When feveral adjectives belong to the same subflantive, they are distinguished by a Comma; as, " a brave, active, enterprising general." A Comma is likewise used in a variety of other cases.

Q. What is the use of a Semicolon?

A. To distinguish the greater parts of a compound

fentence; as,

"Notwithstanding all the advantages of youth, few young people please in conversation; the reason is, that want of experience makes them positive, and what they say is rather with a design to please themselves than any one else."

Spectator.

"Whenever you commend, add your reasons for doing so; it is this which distinguishes the approbation of a man of sense from the flattery of sycophants, and the admiration of sools."

"Hope humbly, then; with trembling pinions foar; Wait the great teacher, death; and God adore."

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Q. What is the use of a Colon?

A. To diffinguish those parts of a fentence, which make a complete fense by themselves, and yet have a connection with fomething that follows; as,

" Age itself is not unamiable, while it is preserved clean and unfullied: like a piece of metal constantly kept fmooth and bright, we look on it with more pleafure than on a new vessel that is cankered with rust.'

Spectator.

fa

"Good-nature and good-sense must ever join:

To err is human; to forgive, divine." Pope. 2. What is the use of a period or full stop?

A. To show that the sentence is completely finished, and has no immediate connection with that which fucceeds it; as in the two following examples, which con-

tain a specimen of all the points:

" Among particular graces the dimple has always been allowed the pre-eminence, and the reason is evident; dimples are produced by a finile, and a finile is an expression of complacency: so the contraction of the brows into a frown, as it is an indication of a contrary temper, has always been deemed a capital defect." Adventurer.

" Be filent always, when you doubt your fense; And speak, though sure, with seeming diffidence: Some politive, perfifting fops we know, Who, if once wrong, will needs be always fo."

2. Are there any other points than those you have

mentioned?

A. The above-named points regulate the pauses in reading or speaking. There are three other points, which denote a different modulation of the voice ac-

cording to the sense.

2. What are they?

7. The point of Interrogation marked) The point of Admiration 2. When is the point of Interrogation used?

A. After a question; as

" Is it for thee the lark afcends and fings? Joy tunes his voice, joy elevates his wings. Is it for thee the linnet pours his throat? Loves of his own and raptures fwell the note."

Pope.

2. When is the point of Admiration used?

A. After a word expressing wonder or surprise, or any other emotion of the mind; as,
"These are thy glorious works, Parent of good!

Almighty! Thine this univerfal frame,

Thus wondrous fair; Thyfelf how wondrous then!" Milton.

2. What is the use of a Parenthesis?

A. To inclose some short sentence, which is inserted in the body of a longer fentence, and is neither necesfary to the fense, nor at all affects the construction; as,

" Cromwell, I charge thee, fling away ambition; By that fin fell the angels; how can man then (The image of his maker) hope to win by't?"

Shakespeare.

2. How long ought we to stop at a point of Interrogation or Admiration?

A. As long as at a Semicolon, a Colon, or a Period,

according to the fense.

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2. What tone of voice do they require?

A. A high or elevated tone.

2. How long ought we to stop at a Parenthesis?

A. Somewhat longer than at a Comma.

2. What tone of voice does it require?

A. A low or depressed tone.

2. Are there any other marks used in writing?

A. Yes, the following:

1. Apostrophe (') 2. Alterisk (*) 3. Caret (A)

4. Circumflex (A)

5. Dialysis (") 6. Hyphen (-)

7. Index ()

8. Obelisk (+) 9. Paragraph (¶)

10. Crotchets []

11. Quotation (") 12. Endofa Quotation(")

13. Section (§)

14. Braces

G 4

2. What

Q. What is the use of an Apostrophe?

A. An Apostrophe (') which is placed at the head of letters, shews that some letter or letters are left out; as can't for cannot; wou'd for would.

Q. What is the use of an Afterisk?

A. An Afterisk (*) refers to some remark in the margin, or at the foot of the page. Several of them joined together fignify, that there is something deficient or immodest in the passage; thus, ***.

2. What is the use of a Caret?

A. A Caret shews, that some letter, syllable, or word is left out by mistake; and this mark is put under the interlineation in the exact place where it ought to come in; as,

C

We should talk extremely little ourselves.

Q. What is the use of a Circumflex?

A. A Circumflex (A) which has nearly the fame shape as a Caret, is placed over some vowel of a word, to denote a long syllable; as Euphrâtes.

2. What is the use of a Dialysis?

A. A Dialylis (") placed over the last of two vowels shews, that they are to be pronounced separately, and do not form a diphthong; as Azesilaüs, Archelaüs.

2. What is the use of a Hyphen?

A. A Hyphen (-) placed at the end of a line, shews, that the last word is not finished, but that part of it begins the next line. It also serves to join compound words together; as a man-servant, a maid-servant.

2. What is the use of an Index?

A. An Index () or fore finger pointing, shews that the passage, to which it is prefixed, contains something remarkable.

2. What is the use of an Obelisk?

A. An Obelisk (†) or dagger, answers the same end as an Asterisk, that is, it directs to some note or remark in the margin, or at the bottom of the page. Many other marks are used for this purpose; such as parallel lines (||); a double Obelisk, or obelisks formed in different

ferent manners (‡+‡); figures (1. 2. 3, &c.); or letters (a. b. c. &c.)

2. What is the use of a Paragraph?

A. A Paragraph (¶) is feldom used but in the Bible, and denotes the beginning of a new subject.

2. What is the use of Crotchets?

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y el A. Crotchets or Brackets [] ferve nearly the same purpose as a Parenthesis; that is, they inclose a short sentence in the body of a longer one; but they are most commonly used to include a reference to some other book, or to another part of the same book; thus [See Locke on the Human Understanding.] [See this Grammar, Part I. Chap. 2.]

2. What is the use of a Quotation?

A. A Quotation (") is put at the beginning of any paffage that is cited out of another author.

2. What is the use of the End of a Quotation?

A. The End of a Quotation (") flews that the paffage cited is completely finished.

2. What is the use of a Section?

A. A Section (§) is used in dividing books or chapters into smaller parts. It is likewise sometimes used as a mark of reference to the margin, or to the bottom of the page.

Q. What is the use of Braces?

A. Braces are used to join several lines together, especially in poetry; as,

"But true expression, like th' unchanging sun, Clears, and improves whate'er it shines upon, It gilds all objects, but it alters none."

Pope.

2. Are the rules of pointing fixed and established?

A. No; they are extremely arbitrary, and depend very much upon the fancy of the writer. In general, however, it may be observed, that, next to a proper choice and arrangement of words, there is nothing contributes more to clearness of style than accurate pointing; and that it is possible for pointing to be so very inaccurate, as to render even a good writer obscure, and a bad writer absolutely unintelligible.

G 5 CHAP.

C H A P. II.

Of ABBREVIATIONS.

2. WHAT do you mean by an Abbreviation?

A. An Abbreviation, or Contraction of a word, is when one or more letters of it are made to fland for the whole; a period or full flop being put immediately after such letter or letters.

2. Which are the principal Abbreviations?

A. They are those that follow:

A. Answer.

A. B. or B. A. Batchelor of Arts.

Abp. Archbishop.

A. D. Anno Domini, in the Year of our Lord.

A. M. Artium Magister, Master of Arts; or Anno Mundi, in the Year of the World.

Ana, a physical term, fignifying the like quan-

tity.

Ap. Apostle, April.

A. R. Anna Regina, Queen Anne; or Anno Regni, in the Year of the Reign.

Ast. P. G. C. Professor of Astronomy in Gresham College.

Aug. August.

Bart. Baronet.

B. D. Batchelor of Divinity.

Bp. Bishop.

B. V. Bleffed Virgin.

C. C. C. Corpus Christi
College.

Chap. Chapter.

Cl. Clerk, Clergyman.

Cr. Creditor.

C. R. Carolus Rex, King Charles.

C. S. Custos Sigilli, Keeper of the Seal.

C. P. S. Custos privati Sigilli, Keeper of the Privy Seal.

D. Duke, Dutchy, Du-

chess, &c.

D. Denarius, a penny.

D. D. Doctor of Divinity. Dr. Doctor or Debtor.

Dec. or 10ber, December.

Deut. Deuteronomy. Do. Dit. Ditto, the fame.

E. Earl, Eaft.

E. G. or Ex. Gr. Exempli gratia, as for example.

Feb. February.

F. R. S. Fellow of the Royal Society.

Gen. Genefis.

G. R. Georgius Rex, King George; or Gulielmus Rex, King William.

H. S. Hic Situs, Here lies. Ibid. Ibidem, In the fame place.

Id. Idem, The fame.

i. e.

i. e. id est, that is.
I. H. S. Jesus Hominum Salvator, Jefus the Sa-viour of Men.

fan. | anuary.

7. D. Juris Doctor, Doctor of Law.

J. U. D. Juris Utriusque Doctor, Doctor of both Laws, that is, of the Civil and Canon Law.

7. R. Jacobus Rex, King

lames.

Jul. July, Julius. June, Junius.

K. King.

Knt. Knight.

L. liber, a book; Libra, a pound sterling. lb. a pound weight.

Ld. Lord.

L. J. C. Lord Chief Justice.

L. L. D. Legum Doctor, Doctor of Laws.

L. S. Locus Sigilli, the Place of the Seal in Writings.

M. A. Mafter of Arts.

Mar. March.

M. D. Medicina Doctor, Doctor of Physic.

Mr. Mafter.

Mrs. Mistress. MS. Manuscript.

MSS. Manuscripts.

M. S. Memoriæ Sacrum, facred to the Memory.

N. B. Nota Bene, mark well.

V. S. New Stile.

Nov. or gber, November.

O. S. Old Stile.

Oct. or 8ber, October.

Oz. Ounce.

p. per, by.

Per cent. Per centum, by

the hundred.

P. M. G. Professor of Mufic in Grefham College.

Prof. Th. Gr. Professor Theologia Gresbamiensis, Professor of Divinity in Gresham College.

P. S. Postscript.

2. Queen, or Question.

q. Quadrans, a farthing. q. d. quali dicat, as if he

should fay.

q. l. quantum libet, as much as you please.

q. 1. quantum sufficit, a fufficient quantity.

R. Rex, King; Regina, Queen.

P. Regius Professor, King's Professor.

R. S. S. Regiæ Societatis Socius, Fellow of the Royal Society.

S. or St. Saint.

S. Solidus, a Shilling.

Secundum Artem, S. A. according to Art.

S. N. Secundum Naturam, according to Nature.

S. T. P. or S. S. T. P. Sanctæ, or Sacro-sanctæ Theologia Professor, Profeffor of Divinity.

Sep. or 7ber, September. V. D. M.

G 6

V. D. M. Verbi Dei (or | viz. videlicet, that is. cher of God's Word. v. vide, fee.

Divini) Minister, a Prea- Sc. et cetera, and the reft, or, and fo forth.

2. Are these all the Abbreviations that are used?

A. No; these are only the principal ones; there are many other Abbreviations used, fo many indeed, that to enumerate them all would be a task equally difficult and irksome. It may not, however, be improper to observe, that the best writers use the sewest Abbreviations.

2. Do not more fingle letters come together in some Abbreviations, than inany of the inflances you have given?

A. Yes, especially in inscriptions upon coins and me-The inscription upon our own coin will furnish an example. It runs thus: GEORGIUS III. DEI GRATIA, M. B. F. ET H. REX. F. D. B. ET L. D. S. R. I. A. T. ET E. That is, Georgius Tertius, Dei Gratia, Magnæ Britanniæ, Franciæ, & Hiberniæ Rex, Fidei Defensor, Brunswicii & Luneburgi Dux, Sacri Romani Imperii Archi-Thesaurarius & Elector. GEORGE the Third, by the Grace of God, King of Great-Britain, France, and Ireland, Defender of the Faith, Duke of Brunswick and Lunenburgh, Arch-treasurer and Elector of the Holy Roman Empire.

H A P. III.

Of NUMBERS and FIGURES.

2. HOW are Numbers expressed?

A. Numbers are expressed either by these feven Roman Capital Letters, I. V. X. L. C. D. M. which are called Numerals; or by these ten characters, viz. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, which are called Figures, and o, which is a Cypher.

2. What is the fignification of these Numerals and

Figures? A. I. fignifies One. V. Five. X. Ten. L. Fifty. C. a Hundred. D. Five Hundred. M. a Thousand.

1. 1.0.

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1. fignifies One. 2. Two. 3. Three. 4. Four. 5. Five. 6. Six. 7. Seven. 8. Eight. 9. Nine. o Nothing.

2. Have you any thing else to observe concerning

the Numeral Letters.

A. It is to be observed, that if a less Numeral Letter be placed before a greater, it takes away from the greater as many as the less one stands for; but if it be placed after a greater, it adds to it as many as the less one represents. Example: The letter V. stands for Five. I. placed before it takes one from it, and makes both together stand but for Four: thus IV. But I. placed after the V. adds one to it, and makes both together stand for Six; thus VI. More examples:

IV. Four, V. Five. VI. Six.
IX. Nine. X. Ten. XI. Eleven.
XL. Forty. I. Fifty. LX. Sixty.
XC. Ninety. C. a Hundred. CX. a Hundred

2. Have you any thing else to observe concerning the Characters or Figures?

A. It is to be observed,

1. That Cyphers on the right hand of Figures increase their value ten times; as I One, 10 Ten, 100 a Hundred, 600 Six Hundred, 6000 Six thousand: but on the left hand they fignify nothing: as 01, 001, make but One, 02, 002, 0002, make but Two.

2. That a Figure at every remove from the right hand increases its value ten times, as 8 Eight, 87 Eighty-Seven, 876 Eight Hundred and Seventy-Six, 8765 Eight

Thousand Seven Hundred and Sixty-Five.

Here follows a more complete Example of the use of Numeral Letters and Figures.

or a contract the Present of the	• • 5
FIGURES.	NUMERAL LETTERS.
1. One	I
2. Two	II
3. Three	III
4. Four	ĬV
5. Five	V
6. Six	VI.

7. Seven

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Vii E/g

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7.	Seven	VII	
8.	Eight	VIII	
9.	Nine	IX	
10.	Ten	X	
11.	Eleven	XI	
12.	Twelve	XII	
13.	Thirteen	XIII	
14.	Fourteen	XIV	
15.	Fifteen	XV	
16.	Sixteen	XVI	
17.	Seventeen	XVII	
	Eighteen	XVIII	
19.	Nineteen	XIX	
	Twenty	XX	
21.	Twenty-one	XXI	
22.	Twenty-two	XXII	
23.	Twenty-three	XXIII	
24.	Twenty-four	XXIV	
25.	Twenty-five	XXV	
26.	Twenty-fix	XXVI	
27.	Twenty-feven	XXVII	
28.	Twenty-eight	XXVIII	
29.	Twenty-nine	XXIX	
30.	Thirty	XXX	
40.	Forty	XL	
50.	Fifty	L	
60.	Sixty	LX	
70.	Seventy	LXX	
80.	Eighty	LXXX	
90.	Ninety	XC	
	One Hundred	C	
200.	Two Hundred	CC	3.3
300.	Three Hundred	CCC	
400.	Four Hundred	CCCC	
500.	Five Hundred	D or I	
	Six Hundred	DC or IOC	
700.	Seven Hundred	DCC or IOCC	
800.	Eight Hundred	DCCC or IOCCC	
000.	Nine Hundred	DCCCC or IOCCC	
1000.	One Thousand One Thousand	M. or CIO	
1787.	One Thousand	MDCCLXXXVII.	
Sev	en Hundred and }		
Eig	hty-leven	N.	B.
20 70 1.00			-

N. B. Numbers are fometimes expressed by small Roman Letters, as i. one, ii. two, iv. four, xii. twelve.

CHAPIV.

DIRECTIONS for SUPERSCRIBING LET-TERS, and ADDRESSING PERSONS DIFFERENT RANKS and CONDITIONS.

ADDRESS. SUPERSCRIPTION.

To the ROYAL FAMILY.

To the King; or] To the King's most Excellent Majesty. J

Sir, or May it please your Majesty.

the Prince of Wales.

To his Royal Highness, \ Sir, or May it please your Royal Highness.

In the fame manner to any other branch of it, varying only the superscription and address, according to the difference of title and fex.

To the NOBILITY.

To his Grace A. Duke of B. To the most noble A. Marquis of B. To the Rt. Hon. A. Earl of B.

My Lord Duke, Your Grace. My Lord Marquis, Your Lordship.

To the Rt. Hon. A. Lord Viscount B. To the Rt. Hon. A. Lord B.

My Lord, Your Lordship.

The Ladies are addressed according to the rank of their husbands.

All the fons of Dukes and Marquisses, and the eldest fons of Earls, have, by the courtefy of England, the title of Lord and Rt. Hon.

The younger fons of Earls, and all the fons of Viscounts and Barons, are stiled Honourable, and a Elquires; 25.

To the Hon. A. B. Efq; Sir.

All the daughters of Dukes, Marquisses, and Earls are Ladies. All the daughters of Viscounts and Barons are Honourable; as,

To the Hoh. A. B. Madam.

The title of Right Honourable is given to all Privy Counfellors, to the Lord Mayor of London, York, and

Dublin, and to the Lord Provost of Edinburgh.

All persons bearing the King's commission, are stilled Honourable; and every servant to the King on the civil or military list, or to any of the Royal Family, is stilled Esquire.

To the PARLIAMENT.

To the Rt. Hon. the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, in Parliament affembled.

To the Hon. the Knights, Citizens, and Burgeffes, in Parliament affembled.

To the Rt. Hon. A. B. Esq; Speaker of the House of Commons. *

My Lords, May it please your Lordships.

Gentlemen, May it please your Honours.

Sir.

To the CLERGY.

To the most Reverend Father in God A. Lord Archbishop of B. To the Rt. Rev. Father in God A. Lord Bp. of B.

To the Rev. A. B. D. D. Dean of C. or Archdeacon, or Chancellor of D. or Prebendary, &c.

My Lord, Your Grace.

My Lord, Your Lordship.

Rev. Doctor. Mr. Dean. Rev. Sir.

^{*} He is generally a Member of his Majesty's most Honourable Privy Council.

All Rectors, Vicars, Curates, Lecturers, and Clergymen of inferior denominations, are stilled Reverend.

gymen of inferior denominations, are stiled Reverend.

The officers of his Majesty's houshold are addressed either according to their rank and quality, or according to the nature of their office.

The Commissioners of the civil list are addressed according to their rank, and are Ailed Right Honour-able; as,

To the Right Hon. the Lords Commissioners of the Treasury, of the Admiralty, of Trade and Plantations, &c.—Your Lordships.

The Commissioners of the customs, excise, stamp-duty, falt-duty, navy, &c. are stilled Honourable; and if any of them are Privy Counsellors, they are stilled collectively Right Honourable—Sirs, Your Honours.

In the Army, all noblemen are stiled according to their rank, with the addition of their employ.

All Colonels were formerly stiled *Honourable*; as, The honourable Colonel A. B. But this method of addressing them is now seldom used. They are commonly addressed by their names only; as Colonel A. B. All inferior officers have the name of their employment set before their real name; as Major A. B. Captain C. D. &c.

In the Navy, all noblemen are stilled according to their quality and office; and all Admirals, who are not Peers, are stilled Honourable.

The other officers, as in the army.

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All Ambailadors have the title of Excellency added to their quality; as have all Plenipotentiaries, and Governors abroad, and the Lords Justices of Ireland.

All Judges, if Privy Counfellors, are stiled Right

Honourable; if not, Honourable; as,

To the Right Honourable A. B. Lord Chancellor. To the Right Honourable Sir C. D. Lord Chief Justice. To the Honourable E. F. Esq; Lord Chief Baron.

To the Honourable G. H. Esq; one of the Justices

All other Gentlemen of the law are stilled according to their rank or office: every Barrister having the title

to their rank or office; every Barrister having the title of Esquire given him.

All

All Gentlemen in the Commission of the Peace have the title of Esquire and Worshipful; as have all Sheriffs and Recorders.

The Aldermen and Recorder of London are stiled Right Worshipful; as are all Mayors of Corporations,

except Lord Mayors.

The Governors of hospitals, colleges, &c. if confifting of Magistrates, or having any such among them, are stiled Right Worshipful, or Worshipful, as their titles may be.

Incorporated Bodies are called Honourable; as,

To the Honourable Court ? of Directors of the East- Your Honours. India Company.

Gentlemen,

To the Honourable the Governor, Deputy-Governor, Gentlemen, and Directors of the Bank Your Honours. of England.

Or elte Worshipful; as,

To the Mafter and Wardens ? of the Worshipful Company of Mercers.

Your Worthips.

It is usual to give the title of Lady to the wife of a Knight or Baronet.

The title of Efquire is commonly given to every

Gentleman of an independent fortune.

The method of addressing men of trade and business is fo well known, that it is needless to describe it.

R

H A P.

Of the ARRANGEMENT of WORDS in a Sentence.

2. IN HAT is the best Arrangement of words in a fentence?

A. That which prevents all ambiguity, and brings out the fense clear and distinct.

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2. Have you not treated this subject in the article of Syntax?

A. Yes, but not with fufficient accuracy.

2. What farther observations have you to make upon it?

A. It is necessary to premise, that there are two kinds

of style, the natural, and the inverted or transposed.

2. What do you mean by a natural Style? A. That where the order of the words corresponds with the natural order of the ideas that compose the thought; or to speak more plainly, that where the words fucceed each other in the order of conftruction.

2. What do you mean by an inverted or transposed

Style?

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A. That where the words are thrown out of their natural order, with a view of rendering the fense more diffinct, or the found more melodious.

2. Give some examples of the natural Style?
A. "A man may equally affront the company he is in, by engrossing all the talk, or observing a contemptuous silence."

Spectator.

" Our lives are fpent either in doing nothing at all, or in doing nothing to the purpole, or in doing nothing that we ought to do." Ibid.

" A little learning is a dangerous thing; Drink deep, or talte not the Pierian spring."

Pope.

" A perfect judge will read each work of wit With the fame spirit that its author writ."

Ibid.

In these examples the words succeed each other in the order of construction, nor is it possible to put them into any order that is more natural.

2. Give some examples of an inverted or transposed

Style?

A. " Of the fashions prevalent in every country, a few have arisen, perhaps, from particular temperatures of the climate, a few more from the constitution of the government." Adventurer.

Here

Here, to render the found more melodious, and perhaps the tense more distinct, the order of the words is inverted or transposed; for the natural order is this; "A few of the sathions, prevalent in every country, have arisen, perhaps, &c.

"Achilles' wrath, to Greece the direful fpring Of woes unnumber'd, heav'nly goddefs! fing."

Pope's Homer's Iliad.

The natural order is this: "Heav'nly goddess! fing Achilles' wrath, the direful spring of unnumber'd woes to Greece."

"Of man's first disobedience, and the fruit
Of that forbidden tree, whose mortal taste
Brought death into the world, and all our woe,
With loss of Eden, till one greater man
Restore us, and regain the bissful seat,
Sing heav'nly muse!"

Milton.

The natural order is this; "Heav'nly muse! sing of man's first disobedience, &c.

"———on a fudden open fly,
With impetuous recoil and jarring found,
Th' infernal doors."

Ibid.

The natural order is this; "Th' infernal doors fly open on a fudden, with impetuous recoil and jarring found."

2. As you have now shewn the difference between a natural style, and an inverted or transposed one, I define to know what you have to say concerning the arrange-

ment of words in a fentence.

A. Not only fingle words, but the members of a fentence ought to be placed next to those which they are intended to qualify or affect: if they are not, they will create ambiguities; they will either lead to a wrong fense, or they will render the sense doubtful and uncertain.

Q. Give an example, where the wrong placing of a

word leads to a wrong fenfe.

A. "The time of the election of a Poet-laureat being now at hand, it may be proper to give fome account of the rites and ceremonies anciently used at

that

that folemnity, and only discontinued through the neglect and degeneracy of latter times."

Guardian.

Here the adverb only seems to qualify the participle discontinued; whereas it is intended to qualify the nouns neglect and degeneracy: the arrangement therefore ought to be thus:

The time of the election of a Poet-laureat being now at hand, it may be proper to give fome account of the rites and ceremonies anciently used at that solemnity, and discontinued through the neglect and degeneracy only of later times.

2. Give an example where the wrong placing of a

member of a fentence, leads to a wrong fenfe.

A. " A great stone that I happened to find after a long fearch by the sea-shore, served me for an anchor.

Swift.

From the arrangement of the members of this fentence one would be tempted to think that the fearch was confined to the fea-shore; whereas the meaning is, that the great stone was found by the fea-shore: the arrangement therefore ought to be thus:

A great stone, that, after a long fearch, I happened to

find by the sea-shore, served me for an anchor.

Q. Give an example where the wrong placing of a

word renders the fense doubtful and uncertain.

A. "Nor does this false modesty expose us only to such actions as are indiscreet, but very often to such as are highly criminal."

Spectator.

From this order of the words it is doubtful, whether the adverb only relates to the preceding or to the following member of the fentence; whereas the fense requires that it should relate to the following: the order therefore should be,

"Nor does this false modesty expose us to such actions

only as are indifcreet, &c.

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2. Give an example where the wrong placing of a member renders the fense doubtful and uncertain.

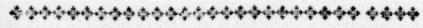
A. "Socrates, who was the most renowned among the Heathens both for wisdom and virtue, in his last moments,

maments, defires his friends to offer a cock to Æscu-

From the order, in which the members of this fentence are placed, it is doubtful, whether the words in his last moments relate to what goes before, or to what follows; but as the sense requires, that they should relate to the latter, the sentence ought to be arranged thus:

"Socrates, who was the most renowned among the Heathens both for wildom and virtue, defires his friends,

in his last moments, to offer a cock to Æsculapius."



C H A P. II.

DIRECTIONS for READING with PROPRIETY and GRACE.

2. WHAT are the principal things to be ob-

A The Pauses, the Accent, the Emphasis, the Cadence, and the Tone of Voice.

2. What have you to observe with regard to the

Paules, and the Accent?

A. They have been already explained (See pages 113, 114, &c. 124, 125, &c.) I shall only observe here, that we ought to take great care to make proper stops at the several points or pauses, and to lay the accent on the proper syllable.

2. What is the Emphasis?

A. The Emphasis is the same with regard to a word, that the accent is with regard to a syllable; for as the accent raises the voice upon a particular syllable, so the Emphasis raises it upon a particular word: and to lay an Emphasis upon a word, is only to pronounce it with a stronger voice than any other word in the sentence.

Q. How shall we know the emphatical word in a

fentence?

A. By attending carefully to the chief design of the writer or speaker; and that word which shews his chief design, must necessarily be the emphatical word; as in

this question, " Who is there?" Who is evidently the emphatical word.

May not a sentence contain several emphatical

words?

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A. It may; as,

"Some have at first for wits, then poets past, Turn'd critics next, and prov'd plain fools, at last."

Pope.

Here the words wits, poets, critics, and fools are all of them emphatical.

2. Is it not of great consequence to know which is

the emphatical word in a fentence?

A. Of fo great, that the meaning of the same sentence may be very different, according to the different words on which you lay the *emphasis*. The following example will make the matter plain:

Will you ride to Town to-day?

This question is capable of being taken in four different senses, according to the different words on which the *emphasis* is laid.

1. If it be laid on the word you, the answer may be,

No, but my brother will.

2. If it be laid on the word ride, the answer may be, No, but I shall walk.

3. If it be laid on the word town, the answer may be,

No, for I must go into the country.

4. If it be laid on the word to-day, the fense is something different from all these, and the answer may be, No,

but I shall to-morrow.

Thus it appears, that the placing the emphasis upon the right word, is not only require to make us read or speak with propriety, but is even sometimes indispensably necessary to determine the sense of what we read or speak.

2. What is Cadence?

A. Cadence is just the reverse of emphasis. Emphasis raises the voice; Cadence lowers it; or to speak more clearly, there is in reading, as well as in singing, a certain note, which is called the key-note, and is chat with which we commonly begin to read. Emphasis raises the voice above this note; Cadence brings it down to it: and in the easy transition of the yoice from the one

of these to the other, the art of reading gracefully does,

in a great measure, confist.

. How ought we to manage the tone of our voice? A. We ought to manage it in fuch a manner, as to accommodate it to the nature of what we read: in other words, we should read with such an expressive tone as to render the found an echo to the fenfe. In reading a plain narrative, there is no occasion for any variety of tones: the paufes, the accent, the emphasis, and the cadence, are the only things to be observed in reading matters of this kind. But in expressing the different passions and affections of the mind, a great variety of tones must necessarily be employed; each passion being expressed by a tone peculiar to itself. Thus Love is expressed by a soft, smooth, languishing tone; Anger, by a strong, vehement, and elevated one; Joy, by a quick, fweet, and clear tone; Sorrow, by a low, flexible, interrupted one; Fear, by a dejected, tremulous, helitating tone; Courage, by a full, bold, and loud one: and to of all the other passions.

2. What is the best method of learning how to as-

fume these several tones of voice, when necessary?

A. By carefully observing the manner of those who are most noted for graceful reading or speaking. But a more effectual way still is, really to feel the very passions contained in the passage we read, and then there is no fear but we shall express them naturally; for, making allowance for the difference of temper and complexion, the outward expression of the passions is nearly the same in all persons whatever. If, therefore, we would read naturally, that is properly and gracefully, we must make ourselves complete masters of the fubject: we must not only take in the full sense, but enter into the spirit of our author: for we can never convey his ideas, with fufficient force, to another, till we feel them ourselves: we can never read an author well, whom we do not perfectly understand and truly relish.

2. Will the fame rules serve for reading poetry as

for reading profe?

A. They will, with these two exceptions.

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- 1. At the end of every line, though there be no pause in the sense, we ought to make a little pause in the reading, about half as long as at a comma, just to shew that the line is finished.
- 2. To favour the measure or melody of the verses two syllables may sometimes be contracted into one, or the accent transferred from one syllable to another. The first of the two sollowing lines affords an instance of both these exceptions:

"Gen'rous converse; a soul exempt from pride;
And love to praise, with reason on his side."

Pope.

The word generous confifts properly of three fylla-

bles, which are here contracted into two.

The word converse is here a noun, and therefore ought to have the accent on the first syllable; but, for the sake of the measure, it has it on the last.

2. Do not some Grammarians make a third excep-

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A. Yes: they fay, that certain words must be founded differently, according to the words with which they rhyme. The word liberty, for instance, if it rhymes with free, knee, or any other word ending in ee, must, they say, be sounded as if it were written libertee; and if it rhymes with cry, fly, or any other word ending in y, it must be founded as if it were written liberti. But this method of founding words fo as to make them rhyme more perfectly, however common it might be in former times, is now grown obfolete, the best readers giving to every word, in poetry as well as profe, its true and proper found without any regard to the rhyme. It may not, however, be amifs to observe this method a little in songs and other poems fet to mufick; and indeed the cultom of altering the found of words, for the fake of rhyme, feems to have taken its rife from the supposition, that all poetry was to be read as if it were fet to mutick; a fupposition utterly groundless, and which, were it adopted, would produce a strange jargon in reading the works works even of our most melodious poets; witness the following couplet of Pope, where the concluding words cannot be founded in the fame manner without the utmost violence:

" Just as a blockhead rubs his thoughtless skull, And thanks his ftars he was not born a fool."

Pope.

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Se. " Or, as Ixion fix'd, the wretch shall feel The giddy motion of the whirling mill."

Ibid.

Many other examples might be given from the fame Author, who yet, in the art of rhyming, excells all other Poets.

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C H A P. III.

Of the TROPES and FIGURES of RHETORIC.

2. WHAT is Rhetoric?

A. Rheteric is the art of speaking and writing, not merely with propriety, but with elegance, fpirit, and dignit, a order to instruct, periunde, and pleafe.

Q. What means does it chiefly employ for this

purpoie?

A. Tropes and Figures.

Q. What is a Trie? A. A Tree is a word removed from its first and natural lighthation, a applied to femething elfe, which is does not originally fightly, but only feands for it, our ecount of fome white or themblance which is had to it: As in this temence, Go, is my Rock litere the woodlies in the word Alaka which, in its paintary and trope made, he show a come lefs than that there is not wiscontained the bure of the Maker of all things. Yet because a rock is for a can the movemble, and a building rounded off at war to have it excites in our minds an idea of God's never-failing power, and the fleady support which good men receive from their dependence upon him.

Q. What is a Figure?

A. A Figure is the same with regard to a whole sentence, that a Trope is with regard to a single word: or rather, it is a manner of speaking different from the common one, and more emphatical; expressing a passion, or containing a beauty.

2. What are the principal Tropes?

A. Metaphor, Allegory, Metonymy, Synechdoche, Hyper-bole, Irony, and Catachrefis.

2. What is a Metaphor?

A. A Metaphor is a strange word put for a proper one, on account of its resemblance and relation to it; or, to be more particular, it is a simile or comparison, intended to inforce and illustrate the thing we speak of, without the sign of comparison. Thus, if we say, God is a shield to good men, it is a Metaphor, because the sign of the comparison is not expressed, though the resemblance, which is the soundation of the trope, is plain; for as a shield guards him that bears it from the attacks and strokes of an enemy, so the providence of God protects good men from all kind of danger. But if we say, God is as a shield to good men, then it becomes a simile or comparison: so that a metaphor is a stricter and closer comparison, and a comparison a looser and less compact metaphor.

2. What is an Allegory?

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A. An Allegory, according to some, is a continuation of metaphors through the same sentence or discourse: according to others, it is a sentence or discourse, in which one thing is expressed, and another understood, and is nearly a-kin to a parable or sable. Thus;

"There is a tide in the affairs of men, Which, taken at the flood, leads on to fortune; Omitted, all the voyage of their life Is bound in shallows, and in miseries."

Shakespeare.

"Farewell, a long farewell, to all my greatness! This is the state of man; to-day he puts forth The tender leaves of hope; to-morrow blossoms, And bears his bluthing honours thick upon him; The third day comes a frost, a killing frost, And when he thinks, good easy man, full farely His greatness is a ripening, nips his root, And then he fails as I do."

Ibid.

In conducting an Aliegory, care should be taken to continue the same metaphor from beginning to end, as nothing is more absurd than a mixture of metaphors.

2. What is a Metonymy?

A. A Metinymy is the putting of one name for another, which it may properly stand for on account of the near relation there is between them. Thus a humane prince is called a Titus; a cruel one, a Nero; and a great Conqueror, an Alexander.

2. What is a Synechdoche?

A. A Synechdoche puts the whole for a part, or a part for the whole; as,

"Thy growing virtues justify'd my cares,
And promis'd comfort to my filver hairs."

Pope's Homer's Iliad.

That is, to me in my old age.

" The filent heart, which grief affails." Parnel.

The peculiar beauty of this figure confils in mark-

ing that part which makes the greatest figure.

Sometimes a fingle collective word expresses multiques with more force and energy than plurals could do: 25,

While all its throats the gallery extends, And all the thunder of the pit alcends."

That is the people in the gallery, and the people in the pit.

2. What is an Hyperbole?

A. An

Pope.

A. An Hyperbole is a trope that goes beyond the bounds of itrict truth, and represents things as greater or smaller, better or worse, than they really are: as,

"Milton's firong pinion now not heav'n can bound, Now ferpent-like in profe he fweeps the ground."

Pope

Caffius fpeaking of Cæfar, fays,

"Why man, he doth bestride the narrow world Like a Colosius, and we petc, men Walk under his huge legs, and peep about To find eurselves dishonourable graves."

Shakespeare.

2. What is Irry?

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A. Irony is laughing at a man under disguise, by appearing to praise or speak well of him, when we really mean the contrary. Thus we sometimes say, "He is a pretty fellow truly," when we mean to instruute, "that he is a very contemptible fellow." The odious, or ridiculous character of the person praised, and the air of derision with which we bestow our compliments, plainly shew that our words ought to be taken in a sense directly opposite to their natural one.

Sarcasm is a trope of nearly the same nature. It consists properly in insulting a dying or dead person with taunts and scoffs; but every keen, satyrical expression is distinguished by the name of a Sarcasm.

2. What is Catachrefis?

A. Catachresis, or Abuse, borrows the name of one thing to express another; which either has no proper name of its own, or if it has, the borrowed name is more surprising and agreeable on account of its novelty and boldness: thus,

Phemius! let acts of gods, and heroes old,
What ancient bards in hall and bow'r have told,
Attemper'd to the lyre, your voice employ,
Such the pleas'd ear will drink with filent joy.

Pope's Homer's Oduffey.

2. What

2. What are the principal figures of Rhetoric?
A. Exclamation, Doubt, Correction, Suppression, Omisfion, Apostrophe or Address, Sufpension, Interrogation, Prevention, Conceffion, Repetition, Periphrafis or Circumlocution, Amplification, Omission of Copulative, Opposition, Comparison, Lively D scription, Vision or Image, Prosopopæia or Perfonification, Change of Time, Change of Perfons, Transition, Sentence, and Epiphonema.

2. What is Exclamation?

A. Exclamation expresses the breaking out and vehemence of any paffion: as,

"O wretched state! O bosom black as death! O limed foul! that struggling to be free Shakespeare. Art more engag'd!"

-Help, angels, make affay, Bow flubborn knees, and heart with flrings of feel Be loft as linews of the new-born babe; All may be well."

9. What is Doubt?

A. Doubt expresses the debate of the mind with itfelf upon my preffing difficulty; as,

" What should be do? or feek his old abodes? Or herd among the deer, and skulk in woods? Here hame dinuades him, there his fear prevails, And each by turns his aching heart affails."

Addifon.

" It must be so—Plato, thou reason'st well— Elie whence this pleasing hope, this fond defire, This longing after Immortality? Or whence this fecret dread, and inward horror, Of falling into nought? Why shrinks the foul Back on herfelf, and startles at destruction? 'Tis the divinity that moves within us; 'Tis heav'n itself that points out an hereafter, And intimas s eternity to man. Eternity! thou pleating, dreadful thought! Through what variety of untry'd being, Through what new scenes and changes must we pass! -The -The wide, th' unbounded prospect lies before me;
But shadows, clouds, and darkness rest upon it.
Here will I hold. If there's a pow'r above us,
(And that there is, all nature cries aloud
Through all her works) he must delight in virtue;
And that which he delights in must be happy.
But when? or where? This world was made for Cæsar.
I'm weary of conjectures—this must end 'em.

Thus am I doubly arm'd. My death and life, My bane and antidote are both before me.
This in a moment brings me to an end;
But this informs me I shall never die.
The foul, secur'd in her existence, siniles
At the drawn dagger, and defies its point:
The stars shall tade away, the sun himself
Grow dim with age, and nature sink in years;
But thou shalt flourish in immortal youth,
Unhurt amidst the war of elements,
The wreck of nature, and the crush of worlds."

Ibid.

" To be, or not to be? - that is the question -Whether 'tis nobler in the mind to fuffer The ilings and arrows of outrageous fortune, Or to take arms against a sea of troubles, And by opposing end them? - To die, - to sleep, -No more; and by a fleep, to fay, we end The heart-ach, and the thousand natural shocks That deih is heir to;—'tis a confummation Devoutly to be wish'd. To die-to fleep-To fleep? perchance to dream; -ay, there's the rub: For in that fleep of death what dreams may come, When we have shuffled off this mortal coil, Must live us pause;—there's the respect That makes calamity of fo long life: For who would bear the whips and fcorns of time. Th' oppressor's wrong, the proud man's contumely, The pangs of despis'd love, the law's delay, The infolence of office, and the fpurns That patient merit of the unworthy takes, When he himfelf might his quietus make With a bare bodkin? Who would fardels bear, H 4

To groan and fweat under a weary life, But that the dread of fomething after death, That undifcover'd country from whoic bourne No traveller returns) puzzles the will, And makes us rather bear those ills we have, Than fly to others that we know not of? Thus confcience does make cowards of us all, And thus the native hue of refolution Is ficklied o'er with the pale cast of thought; And enterprizes of great pith and moment With this regard their currents turn awry, Shakespeare. And lose the name of action."

2. What is Correction?

A. Correction is a figure, by which a man retracts or recalls what he had faid or refolved: as, " What is it then can give men the heart and courage-but I recall that word, because it is not true courage, but fool-hardiness, -to out-brave the judgments of God?" Tillotfon.

2. What is Suppression?
A. Suppression is a figure, by which a person in a rage, or any other disturbance of mind, speaks not out all he means, but fuddenly breaks off his discourse. Thus the gentleman in Terence, extremely incenfed against his enemy, only accosts with this abrupt faying, Thou of all-that is, of all fenundrels the greatest; but the violence of his passion choaked up his voice, and prevented his uttering the rest of the sentence.

2. What is Omiffion?

A. Omission is when an author pretends that he omits or conceals what he really declares: as, "I do not mention his treachery to his friends; I take no notice of his cruelty to his enemies; I pass over his ingratitude to his benefactors," &c.

2. What is Apostrophe?

A. Apostrophe or Address is, when, in a vehement commotion, a man turns himfelf on all fides, and applies to the living and the dead, to angels and men, to rocks, groves, and rivers; as, "-Thou

Thou fun, faid I, fair light! And thou enlighten'd earth, so fresh and gay! Ye hills and dales, ye rivers, wood, and plains! And ye that live and move, fair creatures, tell, Tell, it ye faw, how I came thus, how here."

Q. What is Sufpension?

A. Sufpension begins and carries on a fentence in such a manner as pleates the reader all along, and keeps him in expectation of fomething confiderable at the end: as,

" No ceremony that to the great belongs, Not the king's crown, nor the deputed tword, The marthal's truncheon, nor the judge's robe, Become them with one half fo good a grace, As mercy does." Shakespeare.

9. What is Interrogation?

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A. Interrogation is, when the writer or speaker propofes queftions and returns answers: not as if he were in a speech or continued discourse, but in dialogue or con-

ference with his reader, hearer, or adverlary: thus,

"Tell me, will you go about and alk one another, What news? What can be more attentihing news than this, that the man of Macedon makes war upon the Athenians, and difroles of the affairs of Greece? Is Philip dead? No, but he's sick. What fignifies it to you whether he be dead or alive? For if any thing happen to this Philip, you'll immediately raife up another."

Demosthenes ..

" To-morrow, didft thou fay ! Methought I heard Horatio tay, To-morrow. Go te-I will not hear of it-To-morrow! 'Tis a sharper, who stakes his penury Against thy plenty—who takes thy ready cash, And pays thee nought but wishes, hopes, and promises, The currency of idiots. - Injurious bankrupt, That gulls the easy creditor !- To-morrow ! It is a period no where to be found In all the hoary regulers of time, Unless perchance in the fool's calendar. Wissom disclaims the word, nor holds society With those who own it. No, my Heratio, H 5

'Tis

'Tis fancy's child, and folly is its father; Wrought of fuch stuff as dreams are; and baseless

As the fantastic vitions of the evening.

But foft, my friend-arrest the present moments; For be aftur'd, they all are arrant tell-tales; And though their flight be filent, and their path Trackless as the wing'd couriers of the air, They post to heav'n, and there record thy folly; Because, though station'd on th' important watch, Thou, like a fleeping, faithless centinel, Didft let them pass unnotic'd, unimprov'd. And know, for that thou flumber'dit on the guard, Thou shalt be made to answer at the bar For every fugitive: and when thou thus Shalt stand impleaded at the high tribunal Or hood-wink'd justice, who shall tell thy audit!

Then stay the present moment, dear Horatio;

Imprint the marks of wildom on its wings.

'Tis of more worth than kingdoms! far more precious Than all the crimfon treasures of life's fountain.

O! let it not elude thy grafp, but like The good old patriarch upon record,

Hold the fleet angel fast, until he bless thee.

Dr. Cotton.

2. What is Prevention?
A. Prevention is, when an author starts an objection, which he foresees may be made against any thing he affirms, defires, or recommends; and gives an antwer to it: as,

" Our fathers lov'd rank ven'son. You suppose Perhaps, young men! our fathers had no nofe. Not fo: a buck was then a week's repaft, And 'twas their point, I ween, to make it laft."

Pope.

2. What is Concession?

A. Concession freely allows something that might yet bear a dispute, to obtain something that a man would have granted to him, and which he thinks cannot fairly be denied: as,

"I am, Sir, I own, a pump, the common bane of youth, a perjured villain, a very pest; but I never did you an injury." Terence. 2. What Q. What is Repetition?

A. Repetition is a figure which gracefully and emphatically repeats either the same words, or the same iense in different words: as,

" Ay, ay; and the hath offer'd to the doom, (Which unrevers'd stands in effectual force) A fea of melting pearl, which fome call tears; These at her father's churlish feet she tender'd; With them, upon her knees, her humble felf, Wringing her hands, whose whiteness so became them, As if but now they waxed pale for woe. But neither bended knees, pure hands held up, Sad fighs, deep groans, nor filver-shedding tears, Could penetrate her uncompaffionate Sire. Shakespeare.

" With thee converfing I forget all time; All feafons and their change, all please alike. Sweet is the breath of morn, her rifing fweet, With charm of earliest birds; pleasant the sun, When first on this delightful land he spreads His orient beams, on herb, tree, fruit, and flow'r, Gliff'ring with dew; fragrant the fertile earth After foft showers; and fweet the coming on Of grateful evening mild, the filent night With this her folemn bird, and this fair moon, And these the gems of heav'n, her starry train: But neither breath of morn, when the ascends With charm of earliest birds, nor rising sun On this delightful land, nor herb, fruit, flow'r, Nor grateful evening mild, nor filent night, With this her foleran bird, nor walk by moon, Or glittering star-light, without thee is fweet.'

Milton.

Q. What is Periphrafis or Circumbention? A. Periphrafts or Circu al cution is a figure, which, for the fake of decency or fafety, and fometimes merely for variety or ornament, expresses a thing in more words than are necessary: as,

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The cool, the filent, fave where filence yields
To the night-warbling bird, that now awake
Tunes sweetest his love-labour'd song—"

Milton.

2. What is Amplification?

A. Amplification is when every chief expression in a period adds strength and force to what went before; and so the sense all along heightens, till the period be agreeably and vigorously closed: as,

"What a piece of work is man! how noble in reason! how infinite in facultics! in form and moving how express and admirable! in action how like an angel! in apprehension how like a god!"

Shakespeare.

Climax or Gradation is nearly allied to this figure: it is when the word or expression, which ends the first member of a sentence, begins the second, and so on till the period is closed: as,

And let the kettle to the trumpets speak,
The trumpets to the cannoneers within,
The cannons to the heavens, the heavens to earth,
Now the King drinks to Hamlet—"
Ilid.

Q. What is Omission of Copulative?

A. Omission of Copulative is, when the conjunctions, or little particles that connect words together, are left out, to represent haste, or eagerness of passion: as,

"We will be revenged: revenge! about! feek! Burn! fire! kill! flap! let not a traitor live." Ibid.

Sometimes a repetition of copulatives has likewise its beauty: it serves to shew, that every word in the sentence is emphatical: as

Of Norumbega, and the Samocid shore,
Bursting their brazen dungeon, arm'd with ice,
And snow, and hail, and stormy gust, and slaw,
Boreas, and Cæcias, and Argestes loud,
And Inracias rend the woods, and seas upturn."

Milton. Q. What

2. What is Opposition?

A. Opposition is a figure, by which things very different or contrary are compared and placed together, that the difference may appear the more remarkable: as,

" His years but young, but his experience old; His head unmellow'd, but his judgment ripe."

Shakespeare.

The character of a fop, and that of a rough warrior, are beautifully opposed or contrasted in the following

pailage:

" My Liege, I did deny no prisoners: But I remember, when the fight was done, When I was dry with rage, and extreme toil, Breathless and faint, leaning upon my sword: Came there a certain Lord, neat, trimly dress'd, Fresh as a bridegroom; and his chin, new reap'd, Shew'd like a stubble-land at harvest-home. He was perfumed like a milliner; And 'twixt his finger and his thumb he held A pouncet-box, which ever and anon He gave his note; -and still he smil'd and talk'd; And as the foldiers bare dead bodies by, He call'd them untaught knaves, unmannerly, To bring a flovenly, unhandrome corfe Betwixt the wind and his nobility. With many holiday and lady terms He question'd me: among the rest demanded My pris'ners, in your Majesty's behalf. I then all finarting with my wounds; being gall'd To be so pester'd with a popinjay; Out of my grief, and my impatience, Answer'd, neglectingly, I know not what; He should, or should not: for he made me mad, To fee him shine so brisk, and smell so sweet, And talk so like a waiting gentlewoman, Of guns, and drums, and wounds; (God fave the mark!) And telling me, the fovereign'st thing on earth Was parmacity for an inward bruile; And that it was great pity, fo it was, This villainous fattpetre should be digg'd Out of the bowels of the harmless earth, Which many a good, tall fellow had deitroy'd So cowardly; and but for these vile guns He would himself have been a soldier. Ibid. "Here Thou, great Anna! whom three realms obey,
Doit formetimes counsel take—and formetimes tea."

Pope's Rape of the Lock.

"Not louder shrieks to pitying heav'n are cast,
When husbands, or when lap-dogs, breathe their last."

Ibid.

2. What is Comparison?

A. Comparison beautifully sets off and illustrates a thing by comparing it to another, to which it bears a manifest relation and resemblance: as,

But let concealment, like a worm i' th' bud,
Feed on her damask cheek; she pin'd in thought;
And, with a green and yellow melancholy,
She sat like patience on a monument,
Smiling at grief."

Shakespeare.

Thou divine nature! How thyfelf thou blazon'ft In these two princely boys! They are as gentle As zephyrs blowing below the violet, Not wagging his sweet head; and yet as rough (Their royal blood inchased) as the rud'st wind, That by the top doth take the mountain-pine, And make him stoop to th' vale."

Ibid.

The moon of Rome; chafte as the ificle,
That's curdl'd by the frost from purest show,
And hangs on Dian's temple."

Ibid.

"He fearce had ceas'd, when the superior fiend Was moving toward the shore; his pond'rous shield, Etherial temper, massy, large, and round, Behind him cast; the broad circumference Hung on his shoulders like the moon, whose orb Through optic glass the Tuscan artist views At evining from the top of Fessle, Or in Valdarno, to desery new lands, Rivers, or mountains, in her spotty globe."

Milton. "Thus

Thus breathing death, in terrible array,
The close-compacted legions urg'd their way:
Fierce they drove on, impatient to destroy;
Troy charg'd they first, and Hector first of Troy.
As from some mountain's craggy forehead torn,
A rock's round fragment slies with sury borne,
(Which from the stubborn stone a torrent rends)
Precipitate the pond'rous mass descends;
From steep to steep the rolling ruin bounds;
At ev'ry shock the crackling wood resounds:
Still gathering force, it smoaks; and urg'd amain,
Whirls, leaps, and thunders down, impetuous to the plain:
There stops—So Hector. Their whole force he prov'd,
Resistless when he rag'd; and when he stopt, unmov'd."

Pope's Homer's Iliad.

"But O, my muse, what numbers wilt thou find, To fing the furious troops in battle join'd? Methinks I hear the drum's tumultuous found The victor's fhouts and dying groans confound, The dreadful burft of cannon rend the fkies, And all the thunder of the battle rife. 'Twas then great Marlbro's mighty foul was prov'd, That in the thock of charging hofts unmov'd, Amidst confusion, horror, and despair, Examin'd all the dreadful scenes of war: In peaceful thought the field of death furvey'd, To fainting fquadrons fent the timely aid, Inspir'd repuls'd battalions to engage, And taught the doubtful battle where to rage. So when an angel, by divine command, With rifing tempetts thakes a guilty land, Such as of late o'er pale Britannia paft, Calm and ferene he drives the furious blaft, And, pleas'd the almighty's orders to perform, Rides in the whirlwind, and directs the fform.

Addison.

"To spoil the flain the ardent victor flew: The Spartan bands the blood; shock renew; Fierce to the charge with ten-fold rage return, And all at once with thirst of vengeance burn; O'er all the field the raging tumult grows;
And ev'ry helmet rings with founding blows:
But moil around the Argive hero dead;
There toil the mightiest, there the bravest bleed:
As when outrageous winds the ocean sweep,
And from the bostom thir the heary deep;
O'er all the wat'ry plain the temper raves,
Mixing in conflict loud the angry waves:
But where some pointed cliff the surface hides,
Whose top unseen provokes the angry tides,
With ten-fold sury there the billows sly,
And mount in smoak and thunder to the sky."

Wilkie.

2. What is lively Description?

A. Lively Description is such a strong and beautiful representation of a thing, as gives the reader a clear and distinct view of it: as,

"With wrinkled brows, with nods, with rolling eyes, I faw a fmith stand with his hammer thus, The whilst his iron did on the anvil cool, With open mouth swallowing a taylor's news; Who, with his shears and measure in his hand, Standing on slippers, which his nimble haste Had salfely thrust upon contrary seet, Told of a many thousand warlike French, That were embattled and rank'd in Kent." Shakespeare.

But

But still the house-affairs would draw her thence, Which ever as the could with hafte defpatch, She'd come again, and with a greedy ear Devour up my discourse: which I observing. Took once a pliant hour, and found good means To draw from her a prayer of earnest heart, That I would all my pilgrimage dilate, Whereof by parcels the had fomething heard, But not distinctively. I did confent, And often did beguile her of her tears, When I did speak of some diffressful stroke, That my youth fuffer'd. My ftory being done, She gave me for my pains a world of fighs: She fwore, in faith 'twas strange, 'twas passing strange-'Twas pitiful, 'twas wond'rous pitiful -She wish'd she had not heard it: -yet she wish'd, That heav'n had made her fuch a man. - She thank'd me, And bade me, if I had a friend that lov'd her, I should but teach him how to tell my story, And that would woo her. On this hint I spake: She lov'd me for the dangers I had pafs'd, And I lov'd her that she did pity them: This only is the witchcraft I have us'd." Ibi!

----All the world's a stage, And all the men and women merely players; They have their exits and their entrances, And one man in his life plays many parts: His acts being feven ages. At first the infant, Mewling and puking in the nurse's arms; And then the whining school-boy, with his fatchel, And shining morning face, creeping, like snail, Unwillingly to school. And then the lover, Sighing like furnace, with a woeful ballad Made to his miftress's eye-brow. Then a foldier, Full of strange oaths, and bearded like a pard, Jealous in honour, fudden and quick in quarrel, Seeking the bubble reputation Even in the cannon's mouth. And then the justice, In fair round belly, with good capon lin'd, With eyes fevere, and beard of formal cut, Full of wife faws and modern instances, And And so he plays his part. The fixth age shifts Into the lean and slipper'd pantaloon, With spectacles on nose, and pouch on side; His youthful hose well-sav'd, a world too wide For his shrunk shank; and his big manly voice, Turning again toward childish treble, pipes, And whistles in his sound.—Last scene of all, That ends this strange eventful history, Is second childishness, and mere oblivion, Sans teeth, sans eyes, sans taste, sans every thing."

The following description of Dover Cliff is a beautiful instance of this figure:

"Come on, Sir, here's the place-fland fill. How

And dizzy'tis to cast one's eyes so low!
The crows and choughs, that wing the midway air,
Shew scarce so gross as beetles. Halfway down
Hangs one that gathers samphire; dreadful trade!
Methinks, he seems no bigger than his head.
The sishermen, that walk upon the beach,
Appear like mice; and you tall anchoring bark,
Diminish'd to her cock; her cock, a buoy
Almost too small for sight. The murmuring surge,
That on th' unnumber'd idle pebbles chases,
Cannot be heard so high. I'll look no more,
Lest my brain turn, and the desicient sight
Topple down headlong."

Knew ye not Pompey? Many a time and oft Have you climb'd up to walls and battlements, To towers and windows, yea, to chimney-tops, Your infants in your arms; and there have fat The live-long day with patient expectation To fee great Pompey pass the streets of Rome. And when you saw his chariot but appear, Have you not made an universal shout, That Tyber trembled underneath his banks, To hear the replication of your sounds, Made in his concave shores?"

Itid.

The following passage contains at once a lively defeription and a bold comparison:

" They ended parle, and both address'd for fight Unspeakable; for who, though with the tongue Of angels, can relate, or to what things Liken on earth confpicuous, that may lift Human imagination to fuch height Of god-like pow'r? For likest gods they seem'd, Stood they or mov'd, in flature, motion, arms, Fit to decide the empire of great Heav'n. Now wav'd their fiery fwords, and in the air Made horrid circles: two broad funs, their shields Blaz'd opposite, while expectation itood In horror: from each hand with speed retir'd, Where erit was thickent fight, th' angelic throng, And left large field, unfafe within the wind Of fuch commotion: fuch, as to fet forth Great things by small, if nature's concord broke, Among the conficilations war were fprung, Two planets, rushing from aspect malign, Of fiercest opposition, in mid sky Should combat, and their jarring fpheres confound." Milton.

Q. What is Vifion of Image?

A. Vision or Image, though commonly distinguished from the foregoing figure, is nearly a-kin to it. It is a representation of things distant and unseen, in order to raise wonder, terror, pity, or any other passion, made with so much life and spirit, that as the poet has a full view of the whole scene he describes, so he makes his readers see it in the same strong light.

The poet's eye, in a fine phrenzy rolling,
Doth glance from heav'n to earth, from earth to heav'n.
And, as imagination bodies forth
The forms of things unknown, the poet's pen
Turns them to fliape, and gives to airy nothing
A local habitation and a name."

Shakespeare.

"—— Now storming fury rose
And clamour, such as heard in heaven till now
Was never; arms on armour clashing bray'd
Horrible discord, and the madding wheels

Of

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d.

Of brazen chariots rag'd; dire was the noise Of conflict; over head the difinal hiss Of fiery darts in flaming voilies flew, And flying vaulted either hoft with fire. So under fiery cope together ruth'd Both battles main, with ruinous affault And inextinguishable rage; all heav'n Refounded; and had earth been then, all earth Had to her center shook."

Milton-

Him the almighty power Hurl'd headlong flaming from th' etherial fky, With hideous ruin and combustion, down To bottomless perdition, there to dwell In adamantine chains and penal fire, Who durft defy th' omnipotent to arms."

Ibil_

"Odious! in woollen! 'twould a faint provoke,"
Were the last words that poor Narcissa spoke;
"No, let a charming chintz, and Brussels lace,
Wrap my cold limbs, and shade my listless face;
One would not, sure, be frightful when one's dead—
And—Betty—give this cheek a little red."

Pope.

"I give and I devise," (old Euclio said, And sigh'd) "my lands and tenements to Ned." Your money, Sir? "My money, Sir? what all? "Why,—if I must—(then wept) I give it Paul." The manor, Sir?—" The manor? hold, he cry'd, "Not that,—I cannot part with that"—and dy'd.

Ibid.

2. What is Prospopæia, or Personification?

A. Prosopopæia, or Personification, is the raising of qualities or things inanimate into persons, and describing them as living and rational beings. This is, at once, the finest and the boldest figure in rhetoric, and the most common in poetry. Many instances of it are to be found in Milton's Allegro and Perserose. The following passage too affords a very beautiful example of it:

" How

"How many thousands of my poorest subjects Are at this hour afleep! O gentle fleep, Nature's foft nurse, how have I frighted thee, That thou no more wilt weigh my eye-lids down, And fleep my fenses in forgetfulness? Why rather, fleep, ly'ft thou in finoky cribs, Upon uneafy pallers thretching thee, And huth'd with buzzing night-flies to thy flumber, Than in the perfum'd chambers of the great, Under the canopies of coltly state, And full'd with founds of tweetest melody? O thou dull God! why ly'ft thou with the vile In loathfome beds, and leav'it the kingly couch A watch-cafe, or a common larum-bell? Wilt thou, upon the high and giddy mast, Seal up the thip-boy's eyes, and rock his brains In cradle of the rude imperious furge, And in the vifitation of the winds, Who take the rushan billows by the top, Curling their monttrous heads, and hanging them In deaf'ning clamours on the llipp'ry throuds, That, with the hurly, death itself awakes? Can'il thou, O partial fleep, give thy repose To the wet fea-boy, in an hour fo rude; And, in the calmest and the stillest night, With all appliances and means to boot, Deny it to a king? Then, happy low! lie down; Uneafy lies the head that wears a crown." Shakespeare.

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Beyond the Cape of Hope, and now are path Mozambic, off at fea north east winds blow Sabean odours from the spicy thore Of Araby the Blest; with such delay Well pleas'd they slack their course, and many a league Chear'd with the grateful sinell old ocean siniles."

Milton.

Q. What is Change of Time?

A. Change

A. Change of Time is when things done and past are described as now doing and present: as,

"So fpoke the Dame, but no applause ensu'd:
Belinda frown'd, Thalestris cail'd her Prude.
"To arms, to arms!" the fierce virago cries,
And swift as light'ning to the combat flies.
All side in parties, and begin th' attack;
Fans clap, silks rustle, and tough whale-bones crack;
Heroes' and Heroines' shouts confus'dly rise,
And base and treble voices strike the skies."

Pope.

"And now with shouts the shocking armies clos'd,
To lances lances, shields to shields oppos'd;
Host against host the shadowy legions drew,
The founding darts, an iron tempest, slew.
Victors and vanquish'd join promiseuous cries,
Triumphing shouts and dying groans arise,
With streaming blood the slipp'ry field is dy'd,
And slaughter'd heroes swell the dreadful tide."

Pope's Homer's Iliad.

2. What is Change of Person?

A. Change of Person is when a speaker, in a violent passion, addresses himself first to one person, and then to another: as,

"Pr'ythee, go in thyself; seek thine own ease;
This tempest will not give me leave to ponder
On things would hurt me more—but I'll go in;
In boy, go first. You houseless poverty!—
Nay, get thee in; I'll pray, and then I'll sleep—
Poor naked wretches, wheresoe'er you are,
That bide the pelting of this pitiless storm!
How shall your houseless heads, and unsed sides,
Your loop'd and window'd raggedness defend you
From seasons such as these?—O, I have ta'en
Too little care of this! Take physic, Pomp!
Expose thyself to seel what wretches feel,
That thou may'st shake the superflux to them,
And shew the heavens more just.

Shakespeare.

A. Transition is of two forts:

1. The first is when a speech is introduced abruptly, without express notice given of it: as,

"Both turn'd, and under open sky ador'd
The God that made both sky, air, earth, and heav'n:

— Thou also mad'st the night,
Maker omnipotent! and thou the day!"

Milton.

To this figure may be referred the leaving out of He faid and He replied in dialogues, which tends greatly

to enliven the narrative.

2. The second fort of Transition s when a writer suddenly starts from one subject to another, which seems at first to have no fort of relation to it, but is, nevertheless, secretly connected with it, and serves to place it in a stronger light. This kind of Transition is most common in Lyric Poetry.

9. What is Sentence?

- A. Sentence is a pertinent observation, containing much sense in a few words: as,
- "The calumny of enemies is less dangerous than the flattery of friends."

2. What is Epiphonema?

A. Epiphonema is an exclamation, containing a lively remark placed at the end of a discourse ornarration: as,

" In heav'nly minds can fuch perverfenefidwell!"

Milton

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